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Third Turn as a Teachable Moment in Foreign Language Pedagogy

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Education

February 2005

I certify that the thesis 'Third Turn as a Teachable Moment in Foreign Language Pedagogy', submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education, is the result of my own research, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

Abstract

Talk is the vehicle of exchange in language classrooms when communicative competence is being developed. Turns of talk then facilitate the meaning-making process as students and teachers collaboratively come to understand the discourse of knowledge they are co-constructing. During the pivotal third turn in the essential teaching exchange, there is potential for teachers to realise productive pedagogies as they facilitate their students' organisational and pragmatic skills in the foreign language.

This study brings a lens to Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) triadic dialogue, which has been criticised for its monological overuse and limitation of students' language production. Analysis of the third turn shows the uptake to be an implicit move in the exchange. Teachers appear not to be aware of the potential benefit it offers them for co-constructed language use at that point in teacher-student interactions.

Teachers draw on students' background knowledge and experiential learning in the four domains of productive pedagogies (intellectual quality, supportive classroom environment, recognition of difference and connectedness) when they engage them through an authentic use of language. For this study, potential for productive pedagogy was investigated in the classroom talk of two teachers of Japanese at year 10 level. In a case study, six transcribed and translated lessons were subjected to conversational and membership categorisation analyses using Bachman's (1990) communicative language ability framework to describe language production around the third turn and to hypothesise its effectiveness in providing opportunities for students to generate output in the target language.

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CHAPTER 1--INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The Research Question

This is a research study on the pedagogic value of the *Third Turn* in teacher-student interactions in foreign language classrooms, also known in Australia as Languages Other Than English (LOTE) classes.

The research questions are:

- What are effects of the third turn on talk in second/foreign language classrooms? and
- What is the potential of the third turn for productive pedagogy?

Background

A teacher's language use in the classroom is a significant part of his/her approach to communicative language teaching. In teaching the four macroskills, listening and speaking, reading and writing, and the sociolinguistic and socio-cultural content of the LOTE curriculum, teachers rely on verbal communication with students. In the formative years of students' experience with the target language, listening to teacher talk is an important part of learning.

Australian teachers have been trained to use the three-part Initiation-Response-Evaluation/Follow-up (IRE/F) exchange in their interactions with students. Often in taking first and third moves of the three-move exchange, teachers have developed the third turn as a managing tool for controlling classroom talk. As a result, generally, students have limited time and opportunity to generate language beyond only spontaneous responses to series of questions from the teacher. There is a concern therefore that opportunity is restricted for students to use the second language for meaningful communication is inhibited and access to co-constructing meaning and knowledge.

The study is therefore focussed on effects of the third turn in foreign language/ LOTE teaching in middle secondary school classrooms. It seeks to address the following questions:

- What are the moves subsequent to the third turn, who takes them and for what purpose?
- What opportunities are there for language output by students?
- What potential for productive pedagogies is available in the essential teaching exchange?
- What roles do teachers and students take?

Foreign language teaching is set in a context of exchanging information and talking for social purposes. Exchanges make sense when the third turn is natural and when it offers authentic communication in the target language. Foreign language learners trying to enhance their proficiency in the target language would benefit from a shared knowledge of the effects of language use with their teacher and their peers. Teachers who aim at encouraging students to generate meaningful talk in the target language would benefit from knowing how pivotal the opportunities for talk are at the third turn in their regular interaction with students.

Talk impacts on relationships in any social context. Roles played by a teacher and by students responding to their teacher interact in ways which shape classroom climate. Yet criticism has been levelled at teachers for using the IRE/F pattern of classroom discourse with students, claiming that triadic dialogue is controlling of students' ideas and expression and limiting in the range of ways students can interact in the classroom setting. From early sociolinguistic studies of the teacher's role in managing classroom interaction (Cazden, 1988; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979), transcribed text has been used to analyse the role of the essential teaching exchange in which IRE turns provide the context for teacher talk. Generally the research was conducted in mainstream primary classrooms.

The current study not only provides insight into immediate effects of language choices made locally within secondary school classes and temporally in terms of the timing of interactions between and among class participants, it also allowed the researcher to develop an hypothesis about the role of the essential teaching exchange in foreign (LOTE) language teaching. This was possible through the readiness of the teachers involved to allow videotaping of their lessons as examples of current practice in LOTE teaching.

Classroom communication interactions between text and learner, teacher and students, students and students provide the learning context for social interaction at school. The many interactions which occur in the classroom have an ongoing influence on the social organisation of learning opportunities. Teacher talk and the nature of talk generated by the turns within the classroom discourse (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Hester & Eglin, 1997) therefore impact on the learning context. But the teachers' turns can be problematic. Traditional turn-taking sequences have the teacher talking at the first and third move of most exchanges, with students typically limited perhaps to one move in three, thus limiting their opportunities to generate quality talk by developing ideas through dialogic enquiry (Mercer, 2000; Wells, 1999). As demand for face-to-face interaction in the second language classroom increases to accommodate task-based language learning, opportunities for authentic natural talk between teacher and students have to become an even more significant component of effective teaching. So knowledge about the current state of talk in LOTE classrooms and the role of the third turn in effecting quality talk is relevant for informing classroom teachers and for program designers of pre-service teacher education.

Organisation

The study is organised into six chapters, with appendices of six transcribed lessons.

Orientation

Chapter 1 outlined the research problem, identifying key reasons for investigating teacher talk in LOTE classrooms and demonstrating its significance at this time. Background studies of use of the third turn since the late 1970s have been set within a context of students' engagement with learning and higher order thinking through communicative talk with a teacher generally in primary classrooms. This study was set in second language secondary classrooms and focussed on opportunities for students to talk through teachers' use of third turns in IRE/F exchanges.

Chapter 2 set the study within literature on Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis. Classroom talk theory included triadic dialogue, alternatives to questioning, socio-cultural knowledge communities, membership categorisation, productive pedagogies, and communicative language ability. It provided a theoretical framework for describing the issues surrounding teacher talk in a second language teaching context.

Chapter 3 described methodology employed to gain selected samples of talk for analysis, and to collate systematically patterns that emerged in the data.

Chapter 4 analysed data, showing results in terms of samples of talk focussing on the third turn.

Chapter 5 discussed findings in terms of effects of moves within the third turn of the IRE/F essential teaching exchange.

Chapter 6 concluded the study and led to recommendations for heightened awareness of the role of the third turn in second language classroom talk. It offered a direction for further exploratory research into how foreign language output by students might be enhanced through productive pedagogies.

Overview

Introduction

In the first chapter the three-part exchange in classroom talk was introduced as a natural and identifying aspect of teachers' interactions with students. The current significance of the third turn was set amongst demands for communicative approaches to second language teaching and co-construction of knowledge through talk, and a framework of productive pedagogies which depend for realisation upon quality communication between teachers and their students.

Chapter 2

Previous research into classroom talk examined teacher talk in IRE/F exchanges for its managerial role and more recently as a site for co-construction of learning. Increasing

opportunities for students to talk to engage in target language learning by analysing routines in mundane talk had not been made explicit as a characteristic of classroom exchanges. Classroom script is distinctive, as Drew & Heritage (1992, p. 40) have defined it: “The three part sequence is characteristic of the setting of the classroom *only* because it is generated out of the management of the activity of instruction which is the institutionalised and recurrent activity of the setting”. The effect of talk at the third turn of the essential teaching exchange was therefore the subject of literature supporting this study.

Chapter 3

The methodology of accessing classrooms, recording talk and analysing transcripts is basic to the process of gaining and studying the sequences of talk content. A point of departure from other studies, however, is that this study is largely an orientation towards the teacher’s role in language use and pedagogy at the third turn. As Romaine (1984, p. 15) maintained, “in deciding to adopt one methodological strategy rather than another, there can be no question of choosing one method which will be universally the ‘right’ one. Methodology can be evaluated only within the context of some question which one wants to answer”. In this study the essential question was “What are effects of the third turn on talk in second language (LOTE) classrooms?” The pedagogy and socio-linguistic development through talk at that point in the Initiation-Response-Evaluation/Follow-up (IRE/F) exchange was considered pivotal in selecting an appropriate methodology.

Conversation Analysis enabled mundane talk of the LOTE classroom to be the focus of how meaning was being made through adjacency pairs. Membership Categorisation Analysis provided a rationale for analysing the roles of the categories of participants in the study as the teacher drew on developing the students’ communicative language ability as a sign of the teacher’s pedagogical practice.

A model emerged from the methodology which was relatively new in terms of assessing language that was occurring in the classroom. Using Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative language ability as a guide, communicative competence the teachers were realising in their feedback moves were identified and named. Rather than assessing the teachers’ interpretation of second language teaching methodologies, the mundane talk of daily classroom life in LOTE was used to locate potential for productive pedagogy across the four domains of intellectual quality, connectedness, supportive classroom environment and recognition of difference.

Chapter 4

The fourth chapter systematically identified samples of talk in IRE/F exchanges. Teacher’s use of display questions and role as “primary knower” (Berry, 1981) were put into a perspective of overall classroom talk in which opportunities for students to make meaning were analysed. The hypothesis that third turn moves were significant in identifying talk opportunities for students to

engage in language learning was tested from evidence from the talk samples. Use made of the third turn by the teachers was analysed and student talk opportunities collated. Potential for productive pedagogy and the roles of the teachers and their students in realising development of communicative language ability were observed and reported through the types of talk evident in the transcriptions.

Chapter 5

In the fifth chapter the suggestion was made that IRE/F is used not only for managing classroom behaviour but also for more significant engagement with the “spiral of knowing” (Wells, 1999). This confirmed the role of scaffolding which teachers undertook and enabled students to share teachers’ knowledge of language structure, of idiom and pragmatic use of Japanese by engaging specifically in moves of the third turn. Teachers adopted a frame of initiation in their interactions and idiosyncratic style in their evaluations and feedback. There was potential for expanding productive pedagogy as the teachers developed students’ communicative language ability. Third turn moves were used effectively when feedback was of higher intellectual quality, rather than when it was used primarily for its managerial function. When the teachers used the feedback moves constructively, or when students could find a transitionally relevant place to take the turn in place of the teacher, opportunities for students to speak were enhanced.

Chapter 6

The sixth chapter concluded that transcribed texts of foreign language classroom talk provide rich data of the reality of the classroom and are an invaluable resource for research of teacher pedagogy. Contrary to criticism about its distinctive and repetitive existence in classrooms, the essential teaching exchange, IRE/F has potential for student learning that has to be recognised and exploited by teachers and students themselves. Particularly through the evaluative and feedback moves of the third turn, aspects of specific language use could be observed from the perspective of developing students’ language production and productive pedagogies.

Recommendations for teaching practice are made that exploit the learning potential of student and teacher talk in moves at the third turn.

Significance of the Study

Concepts developed beyond previous studies were that talk generated by teachers could be understood as a whole socio-cultural event that the teacher and students were engaged in. As the concept of task-based language teaching continued to extend the boundaries of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), research in the field of co-construction of knowledge had much to contribute. In order for dialogic teaching to occur, there has to be a high level of engagement between teacher and students. The concept being advanced here is that a teacher’s use of moves

in the third turn of the IRE/F “essential teaching exchange” is pivotal for productive pedagogy to be realised.

Strengths and limitations of previous research

Early research identified the triadic exchange as a means of managing turns of classroom talk (Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979; Wells, 1999) with improved questioning techniques being used to activate student participation. Evidence was also available in relation to a teacher’s role in allowing and encouraging student talk to sustain classroom discussions at the third turn (Dillon, 1990). Vygotskian (1978) principles of understanding learning through the zone of proximal development gained due recognition (Nassaji & Wells, 2000) and co-construction of knowledge (Mercer, 2000) was considered to be improved by teachers guiding students’ problem-solving activities. Talk at the third turn was significant in each of these studies.

Focus-on-form studies from Ellis (1994) and Doughty and Williams (1998) were underpinned by teachers’ efforts at developing their students’ grammatical proficiency. Teacher talk in second language classrooms, while positioned within a communicative language teaching framework, has an orientation which supports a focus on form. Recently Education Queensland (2001) introduced a framework of productive pedagogies (Hayes et al., 2001). It provides added incentive for teachers to implement authentic teaching practice through literate futures policies in which there is scope for development of higher order thinking inclusive of language skills.

This study has investigated gaps in the literature relating to the content of the third part of the exchange. Dillon (1990) has shown that discussion can be generated and Wells (1999) and Mercer (2000) have contributed strongly to the role of talk in dialogic approaches drawing on Vygotskian principles such that co-construction of knowledge can occur. This study suggests that a focal point for student learning through generating talk is available at the third turn in IRE/F exchanges. The study was also an opportunity to contribute anew to in-service training in productive pedagogies, to task-based language teaching and principles of communicative language teaching. In the interest of better outcomes for language learning, selected language episodes could be extracted, which focus on the talk offered by students and the teacher’s choice of uptake, before committing to a reflexive response at the third turn.

In terms of a view of classroom teaching as productive pedagogies, relationships and series of interactions between teacher and students which contribute to learning outcomes can be measured by the students’ language output. In communicative approaches to teaching, language learners need opportunities to produce linguistic output Swain (1995, p. 126). They need opportunities so they might notice gaps in their own knowledge and test out hypotheses about how to construct their talk more effectively in the process of acquiring new structures and confirming their control over previously acquired forms. In so doing they may consciously

reflect on the nature of the language system and through metalinguistic analysis make the processes of noticing and hypothesis testing more explicit.

McHoul (1978) used Conversation Analysis (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977) as a qualitative (Silverman, 1993) means of showing naturally occurring phenomenon (Drew & Heritage 1992; Edwards & Westgate, 1994) in the classroom context. Related research provided models of talk in the workplace (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984) in which professional language interactions, such as medical and legal talk with clients were studied. Membership categorisation analysis (MCA) attributed to Hester and Eglin (1997) demonstrated commonsense knowledge about the roles people play in given contexts through power differential between the two categories of participants.

In classrooms, effects of a teacher's talk on grammar correction (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1994) and consciousness raising strategies (Sharwood-Smith, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993) have had the effect of embedding a focus on form into studies of a teacher's talk at the third turn. Potential for productive pedagogies (Hayes, Lingard, & Mills, 2001; Newmann & Wehlage, 1995) through questioning (Dillon, 1990), discussion (Dillon, 1994) and communicative competence (Canale, 1983, Canale & Swain, 1983), and the development of language ability, outlined by Bachman (1990), have become important aspects of in-service and pre-service training and have been adopted by professional training programs in LOTE. However, little research had been undertaken into use of the third turn by students when they initiate the next move (Dashwood, 2004). Literature informing the current study in foreign language classrooms is specifically related to research on rich talk at the third move.

Australian educational institutions value effective communication amongst the key skills students are expected to acquire during their studies. In addition, second language learners are expected to acquire cultural skills in association with some proficiency in the target language by the end of the compulsory school years. The classroom context therefore remains the focal point of institutionalised responsibility in the education of 6-15 year olds for generating episodes of productive talk in LOTE. Second language teachers have identified variable classroom context as a major factor in their application of communicative language teaching approaches (Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2004). This study may also inform researchers of classroom interaction and the general education community on the significance of enriching the language learning context by raising teacher awareness of the importance of the IRE/F exchange. Genuine talk between teacher and students (Mercer, 1995) establishes the relationships they share and enables learners to talk more effectively as a tool for reasoning (Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif, & Sams, 2004). At a micro-level of teaching, teachers can realise high levels of intersubjectivity as they allow their students to experience learning by doing (Wells, 1999, p. 244). By co-constructing their understanding, students can take a more

significant role in initiating the tool-kit of discourse to learn the target language. Students improve their language competence by their efforts to make their output comprehensible (Swain, 1985) This study is significant in its contribution to micro- and macro-strategies that teachers can employ to increase the types of opportunity they make available for their students to generate the target language themselves through their use of moves following IRE/F exchanges. The current research focuses on ways of engaging teachers and students in co-construction of knowledge as a means of achieving productive pedagogy.

Education Queensland has implemented guidelines for teachers to practice productive pedagogy. This study is timely in its orientation to mundane classroom talk as the source of potential for productive pedagogy. By identifying instances of any of the four dimensions of Productive Pedagogies (intellectual quality, connectedness, supportive classroom environment and recognition of difference) this study locates potential for enhancing language use at the pivotal moments in teacher-student interactions.

Since the 1970s, teaching approaches which valued meaningful communicative use of the target language have gained favour given the goals for students' language production at all levels of proficiency. A shift in focus from learning rules which govern the composition of a language, towards ways that the learner can make use of the target language, even with other non-native speakers to achieve basic communicative goals, has caused a shift also in the significance of talk used to bring about communicative goals. So further research into the quality of talk at significant points of the teaching exchange needed to be conducted in order to offer to practitioners alternatives to meet the call for authentic pedagogy (Newmann & Wehlage, 1995) and Literate Futures which have emerged from the New Basics Project (2001). In-service programs and pre-service teacher education stand to benefit from this work.

This study is also significant for its contribution to the change in roles of the teacher and students when students may share third turn moves with the teacher and the practice of co-construction of knowledge of the target language and culture is endorsed in the classroom.

Conclusion

The study has been situated within a framework of previous research in the area of teacher talk. Feedback moves in the essential teaching exchange were considered pivotal in providing key opportunities for second language learning. The data showed language production during the third turn to be a significant point for realising the meaning of communication between teacher and student. The turn could become a more focussed place for intellectual input and quality of language output if the participants were to gain a more acute awareness of its potential for language production.

This study adds to literature on the nature of turn-taking experiences and identifies a particular role for third turn moves as productive pedagogy in the ubiquitous IRE classroom phenomenon. It contributes to the complex reality of communicative language teaching approaches in LOTE and suggests future directions for both in-service professional development and pre-service education programs. Directions for further research are indicated for a combined role of explicit talk and implicit non-verbal interactions to enhance pedagogy in language classrooms.

CHAPTER 2--LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Analysis of effects of the third turn in IRE/F, the essential teaching exchange builds on previous studies in the broad field of discourse analysis, and specifically conversation analysis (CA). It provides a platform for examining potential impact on teachers' uptake of the current view of productive pedagogies in second language teaching in schools. In this chapter, four organising principles have been used to situate this study. First, a sequential description of studies on IRE/F was established from two traditions, one focussing on points of interest, through CA, the other attending to constituent analysis of moves in exchanges through discourse analysis tradition. Second, functions identified as being performed in the IRE/F exchange were analysed. Third, effects of the third part of the teaching exchange on student participation were sought with a view to understanding likely effects on students' language production in whole class teaching contexts. Finally, significance that has been attributed to the teaching exchange was examined in relation to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles, in which teachers provided follow-up moves in helping students develop their communicative language ability (CLA), and as an indicator of potential for productive pedagogies (PPP).

1. Sequential description of IRE/F

Talk in the classroom is distinctive. It is typically identified in whole-class and teacher-fronted exchanges of talk. The pattern is known as IRE and IRF, or triadic dialogue (Lemke 1990), indicating there are three parts to the interactional exchange. It has also been referred to as the essential teaching exchange (Young 1984). The teacher makes an initiating move (I) at the first turn of talk; a student makes a responsive(R) move at the second turn and the teacher evaluates (E) with a follow-up (F) move at the third turn; the third turn may consist of more than one move before the next turn is taken. Researchers refer to the three-part exchange variously as IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), McHoul (1978), Mehan (1979), Cazden (1988); triadic dialogue (Lemke, 1990) and IRF (initiation-response-follow-up) (Nassaji & Wells, 2000).

The relatively harmonious way in which classroom talk can be co-constructed between teacher and students indicates that participants have come to expect a particular way of communicating with each other. It is common social behaviour for interactants or interlocutors to take turns at speaking in a cooperative way. They tend not to speak at the same time. In Conversation

Analysis (CA) the term “turn” refers to that slot of talk which continues until a speaker stops because of having completed a spoken thought, or having been interrupted or having allowed another speaker to “take the floor”. In classrooms, such alternating interaction between participants typically occurs in three turns, with role of teacher being exercised at the first and third turns of the exchange. Within the third turn of talk often there is more than one “move”, a term in Discourse Analysis (DA) for each identifiable utterance within a turn of talk, often in the form of a proposition that is meaningful and deserving of a spoken reaction. It might not always be a well formed utterance. It is the nature of “E/F” moves at the third turn and beliefs about the functions of that turn that are the subject of this study since teacher talk at that point could be a factor in predicating student language production in second language classrooms. Not only are features of talk identifiable at that point in an exchange, demonstrating the quality of language use, but also the one who takes that turn exerts a distinctive influence on the following series of exchanges as Lemke (1983, 1986, 1990) has shown. Most studies and theories about the essential teaching exchange and the role of participants in it have been conducted in regular mainstream classes in the students’ first language.

Early studies of classroom talk focussed on linguistic values of the constituents in exchanges (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) in Hallidayan discourse analysis tradition. Analyses incorporated contextual information into analysis of text or episodes in classrooms. Unique properties of individual instances had a role to play in seeing generalised properties of classes of phenomena, rather than seeing them as individualised pieces without a systematic framework. Developmental phenomena such as language acquisition showed a wide range of individual pathways and it was often the uniqueness of aspects of human communities and cultures that held interest more than what they had in common (Lemke, 2001, p. 8).

Although resources and strategies by which texts and discourses are constructed have common elements the ultimate interest in studying a text is to arrive at its meaning, as a unique feature. Discourse analysis provides tools to analyse and understand what is going on in a text or discourse, and contributes to the nexus between theory and second language teaching practice. Verbal data have social meaningfulness only as text, not as collections of isolated words or phrases. In order to gain an understanding of a text it has to be coherent and cohesive and unified into a whole, consisting of connected parts, such that the boundaries of episodes in verbal interactions can be identified within the perspective of the whole. Structural analysis of a text has to show a top-down and bottom-up consistency as a means of providing a meaningful aggregate in larger units of meaning. Analysis therefore begins from the largest units, such as a classroom lesson with its stages, and looks at how those units are composed of functional constituents.

The largest unit of analysis for spoken discourse text is the socially recognised “activity type” in which discourse is playing a functional part. A classroom lesson is a typical activity type, in which an episode of “going over a grammar point” may form the immediate context (Lemke, 2001a, p. 6). Constituents of some genres have an intermediate level of organization between genre-specific units and grammatical nodes, known as rhetorical structures or formations, found in essentially the same form in many genres. They have a functional or rhetorical structure added to their grammatical structure. The IRF structure in classroom discourse analysis typically realises a teacher’s question, a student’s response and a teacher’s evaluation. This pattern does occur in other episodes, and because it is so regular a rhetorical formation, Lemke (2001, p. 7) called it a “mini-genre”.

The Follow-up (F) Move in the IRF exchange

Nassaji and Wells (2000) studied teachers’ use of follow-up moves in triadic dialogue and consequences of their choices on student participation (p. 384). They coded follow-up moves for degree of prospectiveness and function. The extent to which follow-up was prospective related to it being forward looking for a meaningful response, in moves still to come. Functions in Hallidayan terms (1978, 1994) included evaluation, justification, comment, clarification, action and metatalk. Whereas Nassaji and Wells (2000) were looking for relationships between initiating moves, demanding information, and types of follow-up moves that teachers selected, they also identified teachers as primary and secondary knowers (Berry, 1981). If a teacher’s demand was for known information, the role was as primary knower. S/he would then be likely to provide an evaluative follow-up move. If information were personal, then the responder was expected to be primary knower, so evaluation would not have been appropriate. If substantive follow-up occurred, it would have taken the form of a comment or request for further information. In their study, Nassaji and Wells (2000) anticipated that if teachers were developing “communities of enquiry” there would be more “equal dialogic mode of discourse” and a greater proportion of questions which invited information for further exploration and negotiation. Follow-up moves would then have a tendency to be evaluative less often and be likely to solicit further student contributions, more often (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 385). Typically they found that teachers gave more than one follow-up for each initiating question, so they tallied evaluative use and demand. In testing how choice of follow-up move affected students’ participation, these researchers found that curriculum context (Science or Arts) affected forms of triadic dialogue that took place. There were more Episode Activity Orientations (EAOs) in Science than in Arts. Science also contributed 26% known information questions, and 47% negotiatory, whereas in Arts, 7% were known information questions and 63% were negotiatory questions.

Mehan (1979, p. 52) claimed that in the typical three-part teacher-student exchange,

the first part of the exchange is an initiation act, the second part is a reply act, and the third part is an evaluation act. If the reply called for by the initiation act does not appear in the next turn of talk, the initiator employs a number of strategies until the expected reply does appear. The result is an extended exchange of interaction.

Models of talk in other settings have typically compared classroom talk with professional language exchanges such as medical and legal exchanges (Atkinson, 1984). Studies of classroom talk in second language teaching have been predominantly in the area of European “foreign” language teaching in Britain (Edwards and Westgate 1994) and in studies of how teachers interpret their understanding of CLT (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Quality of talk has been within the focus of studies about the teacher’s role in grammar correction (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1994) and consciousness-raising (Sharwood-Smith, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993). Future benefits of this study may arise in areas of in-service and pre-service training in Languages Other Than English (LOTE). By enhancing talk at the third turn, identified productive pedagogies (Hayes et al., 2000) may be used to help students develop their communicative language ability, and discussion may also develop (Dillon, 1991) if students are found to take a role as initiators (Dashwood, 2000) in exchanges of talk.

Equally powerful an image of the three-part exchange was Edwards and Westgate’s (1994, p. 125) claim of Young (1984, p. 223) that the

essential teaching exchange is that exchange of moves describable as ‘question-answer-comment/evaluation’ or in more abstract form, ‘initiation-response-evaluation/follow-up’ (IRE or IRF). The frequency of those exchanges, and the overwhelming tendency of teachers to make the first and third moves, is ‘essentially’ what make classrooms so distinctive. The exchange establishes a pedagogical frame of reference which is renewed with every ‘third’ (evaluative) turn.

These contributions provided background to a definition of the essential teaching exchange that would frame analysis of teacher talk in second language classrooms in secondary school.

Conversation Analysis (CA) and relevant effects of third turn

Conversation Analysis enables the structure of talk to reveal understandings between interlocutors. Schegloff (1992, xii) regarded the methodology of CA as an “inventive and productive account of how to study human sociality”. He equated actual talk with actual outcomes. This follows Harvey Sacks’ (1992) method of CA, an instrument for examining sequential organisation of talk that enabled relationships to be drawn from research. Talk is shaped by the context in which it is conducted, and by the context of the preceding exchange. The structure that emerges from conversation data is grounded in empirical evidence, not driven from *a priori* theory. The words and exchange of talk will, according to Sacks (1992, p. 471), “pose those problems that the data bears” (sic).

CA offers a methodology designed to capture the naturalness of language exchange, which is a feature of communicative approaches to second language teaching, even in classrooms.

Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA) demonstrates the systematic social order that is evident when meaning is being exchanged in communication. Hester and Eglin (1997) used formal descriptions of Membership Categorisation Devices (MCDs) to study singular occurrences of talk and action that participants employ. MCDs are defined as

any collection of membership categories, containing at least a category, which may be applied to some population containing at least a member, so as to provide, by the use of some rules of application, for the pairing of at least a population member and a categorisation device member. A device is then a collection plus rules of application. (p.4)

MCDs demonstrate commonsense knowledge about roles people play in given contexts. Choices made in dialogue exchanges demonstrate the power differential between participants. Through MCA, teaching episodes can demonstrate effects of talk at strategic points in the teaching process of a lesson. McHoul (1978, p. 209) explained that a tendency to the pre-allocation of turns at talk in classrooms marks a distinct differentiation of participation rights (and obligations) across the boundary of social identities of teacher and student and how the formality of classroom situations is systematically based. Power differences can be identified clearly through the ways that talk is organised (Dillon, 1990; Edwards, 1980). Pomerantz (1988) showed that professional control of an interaction can introduce a fact indirectly by means of power over lexical choice, turn design and exchange organisation. Speakers can prevent particular issues from becoming topics, and they can strategically direct talk through such means as changing topics and selective formulations in their “next questions” of salient points in prior answers.

Conversation Analysis techniques often refer to particular cases as “adjacency pairs” (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). When a statement is followed by a retort, the two utterances appear adjacent in the transcription and are called adjacency pairs. In talk, a verbal statement is cohesive and makes sense in terms of the other interlocutor’s next turn. Conversation involves alternating turns of talk. Authentic communication in the spoken context of conversation typically involves two or more interlocutors, with only one holding the turn at any one time (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998). In a cooperative talking setting, Gricean cooperative principles apply: communication flows naturally when the speaker tells the truth, provides as much information as is required (neither too much nor too little), is relevant, and delivers the message in a manner that is recognised as normal for the context, and when felicity conditions apply (Grice, 1975). The speaker agrees on certain conditions. There is mutual expectation of the way conversation will be conducted. The speaker is speaking the truth. One person speaks at a time, and there is a purpose to the communication (Green, 1996). Although interruptions, false starts, and fillers may be common, it is an exceptional situation in which two people in the same interaction talk at each other at the same time—they take turns. Children learn to take turns

from an early age. In classroom situations, children learn to take a turn when invited by a teacher in response to a teacher's initiating question; the student responds if s/he can. The teacher then reclaims the turn in response to the student answer and either continues to talk or decides that talk time has ended. Chorus talk is only likely in exceptional circumstances and typically when a teacher intends exclamatory or interrogative speech acts. Although typical of classroom talk, it is uncharacteristic of natural speech for every other turn to be one of quick closure on a topic or sub-topic as occurs with evaluative moves of third turns.

In conversation, adjacency pairs are an essential part of communication of meaning (Mori, 2001, p. 327). A second-pair part is normatively required following a first-pair part and typically shows the following exchange: 1st pair part: question; 2nd pair part: answer. He recognised that a range of responses could occupy the third position. Alternatives to evaluative comment or to follow-up included acknowledgement, for example "thank you", or a subsequent question to the original questioner's query indicating or not indicating acknowledgement of the preceding answer, for example "and the dogs?". Or the respondent held the turn having answered, and returned a similar question to the one asked at the first-pair part, for example, "How is your family?". This pattern is typical in greetings, for example, "Fine. And you?" in response to a first-pair part "How are you?". A further alternative was for a participant at the second-pair part to hold the turn, and shift topic focus by initiating a telling or a question on the shifted focus. The "insertion exchange" Schegloff (1972) did not actually answer the question but moved straight on, such as in this insertion: "Fine. And where is the roster?" Adjacency pair research provides a logical basis for a third turn to bridge sets of adjacency pairs.

Atkinson and Heritage (1984) pointed to language exchanges and turns within exchanges as constituting valuable analysis of talk in institutional settings. Maynard and Clayman (1991, p. 407) took the sequencing concept further, by explaining that conversational talk became "structurally adapted" as institutional talk. Their Perspective Display Series of talk equated in the classroom with IRE exchange that Mehan (1979) discussed. The charge-rebuttal adjacency pair referred to by Silverman (1993, p. 121) is common in conversations. It is a trademark of classroom discourse involving teacher and student when a student comments, and is "challenged" by a teacher on his/her remark. It is different therefore from IRE, when a teacher provides an expected affirming or correcting follow-up in a simple question-answer adjacency pair.

Recording transcriptions

Heritage (1984, p. 238) maintained that writing transcriptions of such naturally occurring data permitted other researchers to have direct access to data about which claims were being made. It also enabled repeated and detailed examination of events in the interaction. Silverman (1993,

p. 122) pointed out the value of transcriptions as providing naturally occurring material that point up alternative assumptions, which observation or interview without transcripts can miss. Realities of more complex interplaying factors which transcriptions are more likely to confirm are brought forward rather than being idealised or hypothesised.

This study used transcriptions of natural verbal data from classroom as evidence for how meaning is made through third turn and IRE/F exchanges in second language classrooms.

2. Functions performed at the third turn in classroom exchanges

The whole IRE/F exchange is typical of classroom discourse. The three moves have been studied in depth with a major function that of the role of questioning in classroom discourse. Questions previously set the teacher's initiating move as the focus of analysis (Dillon 1988, 1990, 1991, 1993, 1994). Seminal work by educators in this area focussed on significance of the three turns in IRE/F exchanges as the means of managing turns of talk. (Cazden, 1985; Dillon, 1988, 1993, 1994; McHoul, 1978; Mehan, 1979, 1994; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

Edwards and Westgate (1994) and Dillon (1988, 1990, 1991, 1993, 1994) have shown that in general classrooms, teachers ask questions in which:

I = teacher initiation of the interaction,

R = student response,

E = evaluation or follow-up by the teacher.

A teacher's management of turns

Edwards (1994, p. 28) claimed that in classroom talk there is a pervasive expectation that pupils' answers will be followed by the teacher's evaluation of them. A "pre-allocated system is evident in the explicit control over turn-taking exercised by the teacher" (p. 119). While a teacher is manager of turns taken in a classroom, a child cannot expect to have an individual talk turn more often than once in every third move, the one move usually being in response to a teacher-initiated question. With a class of 25, the maximum a child can therefore expect of talk time, if it were evenly distributed, is once every 75 moves. We do know that some children are unlikely to manage that average number of individual opportunities, while others will manage it frequently.

More recent studies have confirmed the triadic dialogue studies (Lemke, 1991) which focussed on classroom management function and the 2:1 ratio of teacher turns to student turns of talk. Ohta (2001) showed that in teacher-fronted settings, teachers dominated the initiating and follow-up turns with only 3% of them being taken by students. In contrast, small group work provided opportunities for students to experience interactional routines including the use of

assessments and display of alignment. It appeared from Mori's study (2000, p. 334) that however beneficial it is to have increased opportunity for talk in small groups, training is needed to bring about productive use of the third turn. It is not students' natural uptake. The factor of social power relations appears to make a substantial contribution to the readiness of a participant in an inferior position to take up the third turn. The pattern of having a third turn occupied by the one initiating the topic, remains the significant pattern in a pedagogical setting, particularly in a teacher's presence. A classroom pattern is also observed in settings of children's play when one child is deferred to by another.

Classroom management has been seen as a major role of the third turn. Literature is extensive in the three-part exchange of talk in classrooms for its functions as a management system. Edwards and Westgate (1994, p. 120) supported Mehan (1979) by identifying the IRE as the normal form of turn-allocation and turn-taking, accounting for 88% of all the turn-transitions recorded in his study. He maintained that the IRE exchange was only completed when a positive evaluation was given by a teacher (p. 129). French and McLure (1979, 1981) concurred by recognising that teachers "preformulate" questions, giving advanced warning that a question is imminent. An irrelevant or incorrect answer from a student leads the teacher to reformulate and to continue this process until the "the teacher's answer" is discovered. Baker and Freebody (1989) refer to "cultural logic", an inference students need to learn in order to be in tune with the teacher's game. The reformulative and evaluative utterance that a teacher makes reveals that students are required to aim at guessing responses that the teacher is expecting.

Managing discussion

Another key role is that of manager of discussions as teachers have responsibility for selecting speakers and deciding on students to take this role. The teacher makes the first move either by initiating an exchange or nominating the direction and pace of talk. By default, s/he is manager, though there are occasions when that role is handed over to a student. Even then the teacher decides ultimately when time has been well spent this way and how students are to behave (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 401). If a teacher is the manager, there is a core tactical role to play, that of deciding whether to act as initiator of exchanges or to allow a willing speaker to initiate the exchange. If a teacher initiates an exchange with a demand, a further choice is available. S/he decides whether to ask a question to which the addressee is expected to make a substantive response, or s/he states a position and asks if students agree. Of the above three roles, it is possible to establish a set of relationships among teacher, students and knowledge available to them that might be discursively realised in any particular exchange. The follow-up move is still highly important to consider. Even when a teacher adopts a less dominant role, s/he may still feel the need to do more than simply acknowledge a student contribution. S/he can either make a comment or ask a follow-up question that invites a student to extend or qualify the initial

contribution. Perhaps this is the most fundamental role of all, as Wells (2000) poses, and one that ultimately defines what it is to be a teacher in a whole class setting.

Boundary marking - controlling content flow

From a sociolinguistic perspective, Stubbs (1976) noted that formulations were frequent and monopolised by the teacher defining what was happening and going to happen, and consolidating their definitions. Teachers marked boundaries of what students knew already and the new knowledge belonging to that school subject (McHoul, 1978; Watson & Young, 1986). They monitored its reception and identified repair breakdowns in understanding, and exhibited for the class those meanings that should have been shared. In conversation, those formulations may have been shared around and contested or rejected, but in classrooms, there is normally a single authorised source of definitive statements about what is happening and what is meant.

The value of the third turn can be viewed in terms of what the turn consists of. It is most likely that the turn a teacher is controlling has a higher perceived social value in relationships than a student's reply within that learning space. Invariably a teacher's turn contains the question, which in itself is more powerful than the answer or the response to a question. In two-way communication, such as in conversation, interlocutors tend to share roles of initiator and hearer and then roles reverse. Since the purpose of communication is for an initiator's question to be transmitted, to be heard, and understood by the listener, and then responded to, there needs to be a high level of interaction for communication to be successful. There is a social distance between interlocutors, teacher to students. So the social power differential and the message content focus cause the essential teaching exchange to be self-perpetuating, unless it is challenged by students, or if the teacher is aware of an imbalance in frequency of turns that students have an opportunity to take.

Performing tasks as context demands

Turn design can articulate with performance of tasks. Teachers generally ask questions to test or extend students' answers, both to claim superior knowledge and to test students. In conversation by contrast, questioners seek information, so no such claim is made. Heritage (1984) talks of the "oh", a change-of-state token, which makes conversational utterances distinctive. By contrast, institutional encounters are typically organised into a particular task-related standard shape or order of phrases. The order might be prescribed by a written schedule or formal agenda of points or the order might be the product of locally managed routines.

Language is used as part of a complex cultural activity. Verbal data only make sense in relation to context, to a social event and texts with which they are normally associated. That is, talk occurs through inter-texts. Meaning is made by linguistic elements accompanied by gesture as postural indicators, in addition to proxemic, situational and paralinguistic information. The meaning of any discourse event depends on how it is connected to some texts and events and not to others. What a teacher is saying at one point in a lesson makes sense in relation to what

was said earlier. It also makes sense differently depending on whether it is a review or an introduction to new material, whether it is addressed to one student or to the whole class, whether it relates to a diagram on the board or not. What a student says may make meaning in relation to the past history of dialogue with that teacher. At other times, talk makes meaning through group dynamics of the class, or with a student's engagement or lack of motivation on a topic, and by personal relations with other students. So schemes for systematising probably relevant factors of a text or discourse events include several entities: the participants, their social and physical relationships, material objects, semiotic representations in the immediate environment, cultural definition of the activity type or situation, and their roles and expectations through the channel or medium of communication (Ten Have, 1999).

Discourse-creating context

The principle that discourse itself can create a context, or make part of the environment newly relevant or even change its meaning, is a characteristic of CA. The context is itself part of the text and must be read from the viewpoint of the verbal discourse. Such data make sense in relation to (a) the context of production or circumstances in which they are written or spoken, and (b) the context of use, in which they are read or heard. Discourse data point to relevant contexts in many ways, the simplest being through spatial, temporal, social, discursal deictic forms such as: "this", "that", "the other", "over there"; "now", "then"; "your", "his", "Sir", "sensei" and "as we said last lesson". These forms indicate to a listener that meaning must be made jointly with the textual and the relevant contextual information. An integral part of context of the situation is the context of the culture. Much of the meaning that comes through CA is a presupposition in a particular community of familiarity with other texts, cultural norms, and genre conventions. Nonverbal signals which co-occur with spoken language form a single integrated meaning-making and interpersonal communication system but little is known about how different channels of this system modulate each other's meaning (Lemke, 2001, p. 3).

Wittgenstein's (1968, para. 116) philosophic approach to language is that its "use" is to be analysed in perspective. By analysing language in use, researchers are able to account for what is actually happening in exchanges. It gives value to naturally occurring events as a source for learning and construction of reality at the teaching/learning interface. Talk "has increasingly become recognised as the primary medium through which social interaction takes place" (Silverman, 1993, p. 115). Classroom lessons are instruments through which schools develop institutional talk between teachers and students. Language use in such settings is a powerful medium for enculturation of students into the academic teaching/learning life of school itself and into the subject discipline. Institutional talk operates through the modified use of patterns deriving from ordinary conversation (Heritage, 1984, p. 239), some of which are adapted particularly to the classroom setting.

Mori (2000, p. 331) showed that the third position, the third turn of talk in the exchange offers an opportunity to determine the next course of talk-in-interaction. Understandings of CA, and potential of the third turn as the position for management of interaction and development of a theme, are further examples of the significance of this turn for exchange of meaning in communication. CA confirms observations that it is natural for elaborate assessments of answers to be elicited at the third turn and for well-connected questions to be used such that “conversational turns by and large exhibit understanding of prior utterances” (Maynard, 1980, p. 263). In classrooms, the third position after a question-answer pair provides an opportunity to shift to the next course of interaction. This can occur when a respondent makes a spontaneous assessment of his own response thus breaking the routine questions and answers, which are typical of structured interviews and triadic dialogue in classrooms. Mori (2002) reported such assessment of a small group activity in a task-based class.

Extended exchanges of teacher-student interaction

Teachers make sense of what goes on in classrooms through what is said and done. Lemke (1985, pp. 8-11) acknowledged that we do not know what learning happens in the classroom but we can “make sense of what they say”. Teachers and students share and negotiate ways of talking and doing. In Hallidayan terms, the register of talk occurs in response to situational context. Language choices therefore vary depending on the field, tenor and mode. Tenor refers to the ways features of discourse define the relationship of participants in an activity and the roles they assume towards each other. Teacher and student acknowledge negotiable expectations of their rights, powers and duties to each other. Their ways of speaking and choice of words can reflect conflict of interest, competition or incompatibility. There can be different ways of speaking within the same register, identified by different points of view on an issue or different ways of talking when doing particular things.

Extended exchanges of teacher-student interaction occur when a student’s expected response does not appear immediately following a teacher’s initiation because the student does not answer or the student gives a partial or incorrect reply, or there is a disruption or other disturbance and distraction. Then the teacher uses a number of strategies like prompting, repeating and simplifying to gain a reply. The extended exchange is completed in a similar way to the three-part exchange by positive evaluation of the content of students’ replies, slowed cadence and manipulation of the material. Mehan (1985, pp. 122-124) provided a generative-interactive model in which the teacher continued to control the turn. As Mehan (p. 126) identified and described the pattern, “we seldom see students directly selecting the next speaker as part of their turn at talk during lessons”. He also observed, when a known information question was asked, the questioner already had the answer and was testing the knowledge of the respondent. By contrast, when an information-seeking question was asked, the questioner did

not “have the information and assumed the respondent could supply it” (Mehan, 1985, p. 127). Although that pattern is the norm in classrooms and is considered “effective in reproducing the social order” (Mehan, 1985, p. 128) as a dominant teaching tool, the classic teacher exchange may hinder use of natural language in a communicative language classroom. It is not a natural norm to develop in the target language, since it restricts learners to a one-way driven language use experience. It is also not typical of natural language use in conversation and may reduce language experiences that students encounter in LOTE.

Teacher Control as Primary Knower

The essential teaching exchange as triadic dialogue is integral to classroom negotiation. It is a pattern well understood by participants. Students expect a teacher to ask questions, the answers to which they know s/he already knows. They expect teachers to have a right to ask questions and to direct questions to whomever they choose for whatever reason, and to be the ultimate arbiter of the accuracy and appropriacy of an answer. They expect to have to be invited to ask questions in a turn arrangement set by their teachers. A communicative approach to second language teaching cuts across the above assumptions about well established lines of communication in the classroom. Language teaching involves participation in a sequential pattern with essential differences from the traditional teacher-led IRE pattern. A difference is in the key role takers.

Baker and Freebody (1989) investigated the nature of talk at the third turn in regular English speaking primary classroom through techniques teachers used to elicit answers from children. They found that use of the teaching exchange was a means of displaying knowledge, essentially their own, a specific kind of knowledge they expected children to emulate. Johnson (1995) described teachers’ control of communication in the classroom in the IRE interactional exchange (Mehan, 1985) as one of managing patterns of communication and controlling the content (p. 98). In the strong case of IRE exchanges dominating patterns of interaction, teachers evaluated incorrect responses by reformulating the initiating questions to elicit the correct response, the teacher’s known response, before moving on to the next initiation. Teachers maintained control over all initiations and evaluation of student responses. Interactive questioning strategies of preformulation prepared students for content orientation still to occur in later turns. Preformulation, according to Maclure and French (1981), aims to orient students to the context of the question and provides some indication of how it should be answered. Teachers employ reformulation, in which the questions are re-expressed to be less complex and more specific. Such questioning guides students in orienting their answers to align with the intended answer. Teacher-student interaction can be tightly controlled and teacher-directed. Taking a sociocultural perspective, Wells (1993) claimed that the three-part exchange was “neither good nor bad; rather, its merits—or demerits—depend on the purposes it is used to serve on particular occasions, and upon the larger goals by which those purposes are informed”

(p. 3). He recognised that triadic dialogue “used by the same teacher, in different contexts (can) achieve very different purposes”. Further, he showed through a cooperative application of the enterprise of teaching and learning, IRF exchanges can be used to achieve productive goals including the “co-construction of knowledge on the basis of ideas and experiences contributed by the students as well as the teacher” (p. 3).

Nassaji and Wells (2000) hypothesised that incidence of evaluation would vary with type of initiating question and that evaluative follow-up moves would occur more frequently in exchanges initiated by known information questions (KIQs) than negotiatory questions (NQs), since with KIQ there was likely to be a right answer. They found that NQs far exceeded KIQs and NQs tended to be evaluated more frequently than KIQs. These findings were unexpected (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 391). KIQs were more often used for management than for exploration episodes. Evaluative follow-up was not significant in either Science or Arts. The response length of student utterances to explore-type episodes compared with manage-type episodes were longer in Arts than Science. If a teacher encouraged more equal participation in discussion s/he was generally less willing to take the role of primary knower (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 392) and would tend to pose questions that solicited student opinions and conjectures or invited a more exploratory stance.

All episodes among KIQs and NQs and respective evaluative follow-ups were analysed. Negotiatory questions posed by teachers tended to encourage dialogic enquiry instead of evaluating student responses. In general teachers posed questions to be answered through negotiation and exploration of the topics more frequently than their questions called for display of known information. NQ tended to lead to a variety of follow-ups (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, pp. 395-396) such as asking for clarification, explanations, alternative opinions or comments and metacomments of their own.

As hypothesised, NQs led to longer and more complex student responses, but asking KIQs had an opposite effect. Also, where a teacher gave a greater proportion of evaluative responses to either type of questions, there was a tendency for students to give shorter or less complex responses. So, when a teacher chose not to foreclose (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 398) the discussion with a known answer to a problem, additional evidence and reasoning were elicited relevant to the drawing of a warranted conclusion. Extended discussion occurred over the exchanges of talk because the teacher chose from a range of follow-up options such that various perspectives were considered in co-constructing solutions to the problem.

Function in second language classrooms

The position of teacher as controller of the talk in first language classrooms is replicated in the second language classroom with communicative language teaching aims. As Johnson (1995) described it, the classroom is a context jointly constructed by teacher and learners. It is a space

where teacher and learner talk is generated by goal-oriented behaviours and governed by rules of talk which are characteristic of the space. Interactions in other institutionalised places of talk also demonstrate distinctive characteristics such as in the doctor's surgery, courtroom and restaurant and over the shop counter.

LOTE classrooms which are focussed on communication have speakers and listeners, readers and writers, with tasks to do. Language activities are designed to lead to the completion of a task or sub-tasks with a meaningful context. As a result, teacher and students may need to work in a partnership and the role of speaker and listener may change during the course of a lesson. Teacher can choose a different role at the beginning of each exchange and reciprocally assign it to students. That is, a teacher can shift the role of "primary knower" (Berry, 1981) to a specific student addressee. In so doing, teacher and other students become "secondary knowers" or there is no preselected knower. All participants then can offer contributions towards the co-construction of knowledge. (A primary knower is one who holds knowledge on a particular topic or entity. S/he may ask questions but already knows the answer. A secondary knower is one who holds incomplete information or knowledge and asks questions to find out answers.)

Tool for social action

Talk exchanges function as the diagnostic tool for social action in the classroom. They provide a teaching context in research talk (McHoul, 1978) and draw on the methodology of CA (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) as the qualitative means (Freebody, 2003; Silverman, 1993) of showing naturally occurring phenomena (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Edwards & Westgate, 1994). As a branch of ethnomethodology that examines fundamental organisation of talk-in-interaction, CA is the moment-by-moment fashioning of flow of talk that enables participants to manage turn construction and allocation (Mori, 2000, p. 326). Learners need opportunities to maximise their exposure to real-life interaction (Mori, 2002). Their experience with authentic natural language use enables them to engage in the process of language acquisition with a focus on meaning and purpose. CA researchers start with a microanalysis of ways that participants organise their interactions and accomplish various social actions. How students make their contributions reflects their treatment of the local configuration of talk developed so far, as well as their consideration of the larger institutional context surrounding their talk. For each moment of interaction, participants demonstrate behaviour relevant to that moment for themselves. That is, "context is both the project and the product of the participants' own actions and is inherently locally produced and transformable at any moment" (Drew & Heritage, 1992, p. 19).

Studies of context development through the participants informed the methodology of this study into effects of the third turn and IRE/F exchanges.

Beyond management

While acknowledging the well established and successful class management “manipulation” role the teacher exercises through IRE, there are gaps in the literature relating to the content of the flexible role that the third part of the exchange can play in classroom talk. The exchange may do more than reinforce teacher control. As the dominant talk structure, IRE has a pedagogical function. Further, opportunities for the third turn to be taken intentionally by students would change the nature of talk and power balance in a LOTE classroom. Dillon (1991) has shown that a non-question alternative to a teacher’s management of the third turn generates discussion by students in content classes as they display enhanced cognition, and knowledge of the dynamics of the group process.

The nature of the teachers’ turns and the effects on students’ language production are functions of the teaching exchange. As the dominant talk structure, IRE/F has a pedagogical function in the classroom. It is viewed as a reflection of a teacher’s beliefs about guiding students’ communicative competence development. At third turns in the IRE/F exchange students may have opportunities to initiate strategies for linguistic, discursal, social and strategic competencies and teachers might be in a position to provide productive pedagogy. Mehan (1979, p. 140) considered students’ discourse skills to be central for them to enter talk by “getting the floor, holding the floor and introducing news”. Mehan’s (1979) studies in an American elementary school found 88% of all turn-transitions recorded were of the turn-taking and turn-allocation types in which the teacher was the gatekeeper, taking every other turn. For pupils to take the turn more often themselves, they needed to “find the seams in an essentially teacher-controlled discourse” (p. 139). New work is required to test the hypothesis that the IRE/F exchange should do more than reinforce a teacher’s control.

The third turn in triadic dialogue is that third part of the exchange between teacher and a student that reiterates the teacher’s intention of questioning posed in the first turn. The field of discourse analysis provided parameters within which content and intention of talk in classrooms were placed. Categories of talk reflect social context which place students in relation to their teacher and the cultural resources available for their learning in the classroom. Conversational analysis from another viewpoint treats talk as a rich flow of meaning which is both immediate and framed within knowledge made explicit in exchanges that have been recorded. Membership Categorisation Analysis extends the contribution of conversation analysis to roles participants assume as they interact. Communicative approaches to second language teaching and form-focussed teaching rely on effective interactions between teacher and students for students to develop their communicative language ability. The fine role that IRE/F exchanges play in engaging students in meaningful communication had not been explored within a framework which acknowledged productive pedagogy.

3. *Impact of IRE/F on student participation as a means of learning.*

Conversation analysis studies such as Baker and Freebody (1989) investigated the nature of talk at the third-part exchange in regular English speaking primary classrooms. They demonstrated techniques teachers used to elicit answers from children. It was also evident in that study that early in a child's experience of classroom discourse, teachers have established the habit of taking the third turn. Conversation Analysis demonstrates the significance of the moment. A prospective teller tends not to start telling (a story) suddenly. S/he identifies a moment in the talk when it is relevant and coherent in the ongoing development to pre-announce what the telling is about. There may be a wait for alignment of other participants, or a request by them for him/her to initiate the telling. Students are more likely to develop talk-in-interaction (Mori 2000, p. 339) when they have a pre-planned strategy. For students to develop natural coherent discussion, they need to attend to the moment-by-moment development of talk and make their contribution relevant to the immediate context within exchanges in the exchange. Mori notes that instruction and pre-task planning tend to focus on grammatical form and content of each initiating action in the exchange and not the contingent development of talk in the exchanges that follow. Students therefore need to learn how to attend to moment-by-moment development of exchanges in order to activate planned utterances. Language is then both vehicle and target of learning in LOTE classroom settings.

Triadic Dialogue

It was only relatively recently that the essential teaching exchange was recognised as a site for co-construction of meaning between teacher and student (Mercer 1995, Wells 1999) in mainstream learning first language contexts. Triadic dialogue continues to be the dominant discourse genre even when a more dialogic style of interaction is attempted (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 400). A question in the exchange proposes an issue for discussion and because of its high level of prospectiveness, it requires recipients to contribute to the issue in response. When a follow-up move is included, it allows a teacher to work with a student's response in a variety of ways. So the format triadic dialogue operationalises a wide variety of tasks, even across different teaching philosophies or pedagogies. For example, Heap (1985) explained that monitoring through triadic dialogue allowed teachers to test or check student grasp or retention of taught material.

IRF also permitted a teacher to co-construct knowledge with students. This included built-in repair structures with right answers (Newman, Griffin, & Cole, 1989, p. 127). When teachers only engaged in known information through questioning, the co exchange was that their students had limited opportunities to try out their own ideas and therefore had reduced

opportunity to master progressively the distinctive discourses of the disciplines they were studying (Nystrand & Gamoran, 1991).

The choice of initiating question, Nassaji & Wells (2000, p. 400) maintained has an important influence on the way the triadic dialogue exchange develops, but choice of follow-up is also important. Where student responses to questions were frequently given an evaluative follow-up, that teacher action tended to suppress extended student participation. Many follow-up moves with negotiation questions (NQs) were encouraging rather than evaluating and did not have a negative effect. Even exchanges which started as known-information questions (KIQs) could have developed into dialogic, if in the follow-up move, the teacher had avoided evaluation and instead requested justifications, connections, or counter arguments and allowed students to self-select in making their contributions. Then the IRF generic structure faded into the background and was replaced temporarily by a more conversational genre (Nassaji & Wells, 2000, p. 401).

Teachers establish a social participation structure in communicative language classrooms that encourages students to self-select when it is appropriate to participate. Teachers can make “open bids” (Johnson, 1995, p. 105) so they do not have to make direct bids to specific learners. A degree of variability needs to be allowed to determine who is to talk and when. Open-ended teacher questions assist this process and as students make contributions, the teacher may recast them as a summation of discussion to date. The teacher can set up sequential steps for understanding textual meaning by requesting students to generate their own interpretations of concepts in the discussion. The teacher takes the student-generated contributions and can introduce new vocabulary, moving simplified use of language into a comprehensible but more conventional use of language, at the same time as recasting student contributions into the teacher’s interpretations. Through this socialisation in classrooms, students develop their educational knowledge, co-constructing it with their teacher. The shared meaning resulting from such exchanges often reflects that a teacher understands more than it does students’ understanding (Cazden, 1988; Edwards & Mercer, 1987; Lemke, 1985). However, when the content of student language is meaning-focussed, students tend to produce more extended pieces of discourse (Johnson, 1995, p. 107). Students become more willing to express opinions when their teacher accepts their feelings about an issue or the content of the discussion. When students infer a teacher’s expectations and intentions, and the academic task and social participation structures are in place, students can participate successfully in communicative classroom events.

Language choice often has to be understood and complied with by pupils. Teachers and pupils rely on their sense of what forms of interaction are appropriate to their relationship. Implicit and explicit types of information provide input for that interaction. Situations and relationships can be defined and redefined in the act of speaking, so that in what they say and how they respond to the speech of others enables them to renegotiate their sense of what is normal interaction in that context. Smith and Geoffrey (1968) indicated how teachers can develop a “silent” code

with a class so that references become implicit in understood “silent language”. Pupils need to learn the rules by which a teacher encounters them in talk in the classroom. Teacher-pupil relationships are normally high in power and low in solidarity (Edwards, 1992, p. 104) so that much of the talk between them is working out a power relationship.

A sociocultural approach to teaching a subject discipline has an impact on educational practice. Types of teacher insights make a difference to students’ learning about that discipline. Through a social and functional linguistics approach, Halliday (1978, 1994) and Lemke (1983, 1990) showed that effective meaning is made when language in context plays the part of a system of resources for meaningful verbal action. Connections are made in the situational context of teacher and students through an explicit awareness of features such as the register used, nature of the genre, and semantic network in learning episodes. A systemic functional approach became important as semantics replaced the formal translation approach to language teaching and CLT became a popular approach to classroom teaching and constructivist approaches began to impact on educational practice. In the global context of the culture of education, role expectations and subject discipline also inform the way language is used.

Lemke (1990) reiterated, in his studies of Science lessons, earlier classroom dialogue work of Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Mehan (1979). He revealed interdependence of teacher and students in their negotiations, how they related socially in terms of authority in the classroom, the style of humour tolerated and expectations of each other through teaching and learning events. Lemke (1985) explained that two major processes are involved when triadic dialogue is being enacted. First is a process of thematic system development and the process of activity structures involved in interactional control, where routines or activity structures refer to the common language for routine classroom activity. Lesson content attributes are talked about within a system of thematic relationships, such as linguistic elements in a LOTE class. Second, an exchange of question-answer-acknowledgement of an accepted answer is fulfilled when students have learned to manage the ritual of a power imbalance inherent in the relationship between teacher and student. Lemke regarded the two processes as an integral and inseparable part of the “flow of behaviour” in classrooms, but separate for the purposes of analysis. He also viewed language of the classroom as a reflection of wider societal relationships, such as rights and obligations of the person exposed when taking a turn. Whereas Lemke took an approach that teacher and students are socially powerless to change to a wider choice of options in their interactions, Hester and Eglin (1997) used Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA) as a framework for analysing the institutional and cultural identity that participants adopt in their interactions with others (Freebody, 2003, p. 155). Nunn (2001, p. A-1) argued that “teacher-fronted classroom interaction” provides the crucial “ritual” for “direction of innovation”. Yet this is opposed to a more “devolved interaction of communicative language teaching”.

Cycle of interaction

For natural talk to be generated, teachers have to provide strategies which invite the kind of participation that makes room for questions by students. Teachers have to invite questions, waiting for them to come, and welcoming them. They need a positive disposition which allows questions. A teacher's notion of questions and their role in learning (Dillon, 1988, p. 24) needs to be compatible with how students learn. One method of becoming more conscious of the role of teacher talk in the classroom, Dillon (1988) suggests, is that teachers systematically count the number of student questions and record moves made after asking a question (p. 25). Making systematic room for student questions requires teachers to stop asking questions. The more questions a teacher asks, the fewer students ask. Teachers have to invite a question and then be patient and wait, resisting the temptation to jump in. Teachers can ask students to write down questions for which they want answers, and then let them say them, not answering each one but expressing appreciation for the question being asked (Dillon, 1988, p. 26). That practice gives teachers a sense of the kinds of information, knowledge and understanding that students have, and where gaps are in their understanding.

Alternatives to questioning

Dillon (1988, pp. 53-69) suggested that teachers should consider their questioning behaviours, the pedagogical purpose of their questioning and the classroom circumstances. In particular, they should pre-plan their questioning technique. In developing an overall plan for a lesson, during the orientating phase, the enhancing phase and the synthesising phase the teacher has to become more aware of how questioning might be used to focus students' learning on the target language, and when to use other forms of interaction with students.

In considering whether to use a question, other aspects of questioning need also to be taken into account: teachers should consider the number, type, timing, topic and form of questions, manner of delivery and assumptions of background knowledge of student to whom the question is addressed. Further is the issue of what to do with the answer.

Alternatives shift the turn into an instruction, an imperative given by students to each other. Possible options include students asking questions, preferably open questions, for closed ones often invoke an insufficient evaluative reply of "yes" or "no" and inhibit communicative interaction. Students' questioning, however, is too often not considered an option by teachers. One study among 16-18 year olds in social studies discussion classes showed that in a 10-minute random sample of an hour's class, teacher questions accounted for 60% of teacher talk and less than 1% of student talk pertained to student questions of inquiry. On average 80 questions per hour came from teachers and 2 questions per hour from students (Dillon, 1988, pp. 8-10). The study was made of 27 classrooms and 721 students and the questions identified were in search of information, knowledge and understanding. Inquiries about the subject matter

were less common than strategic questions such as procedure and rhetoric making statements, which amounted to 6% of student talk, for example, “What, I didn’t hear!” or “Is this going to be on the test?”.

One suggestion is that the teacher should listen to the response. On the basis of that listening, before evaluating the response with verbal feedback, the teacher might have had time to recognise whether the student’s response was partially correct, or correct in one context and not another, or that it answered the proposition indirectly and that it was acceptable under certain conditions. Being prepared for making most appropriate use of student responses should lead a teacher to allow students to occupy the “gatekeeper” role on questions in class. Students themselves could occupy the third slot in a teaching exchange, since they quickly learn a teacher’s questioning style and can mimic it readily.

There were several alternatives to the traditional teacher’s question proposed as stimulus to discussion (Dillon, 1990, pp. 182-203). One alternative was that the questioner made a statement of their pre-question thought, thereby providing an answer which would allow communication to expand and be more open. A second alternative was a self-reflective restatement. This involved repeating the respondent’s statement or making a summary of it, or expressing a characteristic of it, such that the listener was also invited to expand what he might have said had a direct question been asked of him. Teachers often choose this alternative, but do not wait for a student to use the turn and expand the utterance. Typically a teacher followed his/her restatement with an evaluation comment such as “Good. Next!”. Teachers can enable students to elaborate when they share an idea with an individual student or a group of students. By implication, if a teacher is confused by a student’s response, relatively good use of language has been achieved through misunderstanding, for at the same time they are clarifying intentions of the utterances. It also serves to indicate to language learners that if something is not clear, it is preferable to speak up and clarify the statement than to ignore the meaning of what is being talked about.

The remaining alternatives involve language production by students. Learners tend to expand their contributions if they sense their listeners are interested. And by referring a current statement or observation to one previously mentioned, a teacher can effectively re-engage a speaker by them having to confirm their statement or oppose it. A teacher can encourage a student to phrase a question in relation to what they have been speaking about. Students are thereby able to expand more naturally on a theme. Where appropriate, they can also design questions as a group.

Perhaps one of the simplest alternatives to a teacher asking questions is for him/her to give a signal or a gesture to members of the group to respond. Signals allow the speaker to elaborate rather than a teacher take back the turn. Similarly, by using phatics such as “really” allowing emphasis of a speaker’s point, the teacher identifies with the statement. Also if s/he uses fillers

such as “mmhh” or “huh-huh” in order to slow the pace, it allows time for a student to think about what s/he has said. Such markers allow a student to continue to hold the turn by speaking, or allow the teacher to pass the turn on to another student. Alternatively, a teacher can remain silent. When these moves are done naturally, they evoke a natural response in a student to think more deeply, or to elaborate and thus hold the turn.

Chorused talk

Chorused talk allows children an opportunity to use the target language. However, chorused use is relatively unnatural, compared with talk that is shared in an authentic natural setting when there is transaction of information or social interaction. In such instances, a teacher’s turn is longer than a student’s, so a teacher’s initiating turn, often with a question or request or command attached, is five to six times longer than students’ response time. The nature of talk when it is not interrogative consists of confirmation that a student’s attempt at talk was correct. In an evaluation/follow-up teacher turn, a teacher frequently repeats the student’s last utterance, reacting to its quality. This is often a reaction to the level of correctness and relevance. Teachers use another move in that third turn to manage initiating the next turn. That is, teachers tend to take the turn in a professional managerial role, as teacher in the classroom. Less often do teachers take it as a means of extending conversation, for explaining a point or improving the quality of a student’s response or, as might have been expected in a discussion, by debating value statements. Further, an evaluative turn in an essential teacher exchange is not so much feedback as it is a marker of class control, or maintaining pace of the language lesson. There are few silences.

Edwards and Westgate (1994) reiterated a play-off of power in classrooms between teacher and pupils. Much of the talk between them is regarded as “working-out” the power relationship. Teachers rely heavily on assumed patterns of behaviour about the normal range of activities and interactions appropriate in classrooms. So characteristic is it that Drew and Heritage (1992, pp. 40-41) have said of the classic exchange:

The three part exchange is characteristic of the setting of the classroom *only* because it is generated out of the management of the activity of instruction which is the institutionalised and recurrent activity of the setting. The exchange structure is the instrument through which the activity is accomplished on any given occasion.

Romaine (1984, pp. 15-23) viewed talk between teachers and pupils as natural, when it conformed to the constraints of orderly coherent communication in that setting. Teachers often assume that situational-bound instructions are understood by all pupils, even those unfamiliar with the situation. Students who are familiar with a range of outside the classroom interaction opportunities, and those who engage in talk with other adults and in different cultural experiences, are more likely to adapt more quickly to classroom discourse. When there are tasks

to achieve, transactional knowledge comes to the fore, and there is high role differentiation between teacher and students.

Alternatively other studies have criticised overuse of the IRE/F exchange as repetitive, teacher fronted (Ohta 2001) and didactic (Massialas and Zevin, 1976). Their studies showed that the “initiator” of creative discussion, the “dialogic” teacher, compared with the “didactic” teacher, is likely to talk less themselves, evaluate fewer of their pupils’ contributions and prompt directing of questions to other pupils, rather than to one source of authority.

A study that established where in the IRE/F exchange a teacher could engage students so that they were encouraged to produce utterances in the target language would further current understanding of second language teaching particularly with respect to productive pedagogies.

4. Significance of third turn and communicative language teaching (CLT) and potential for productive pedagogies (PPP)

Through this chapter research has been explored on the role of teacher talk, particularly at the third turn and attempts to clarify characteristics of that output. The focus has shifted from classroom management to greater insight into students’ conceptual development in first language classrooms through the quality of the teaching exchange. A point of departure in this study is language production in second language teaching settings.

Study of teacher talk in second language classrooms has been positioned as being in a transitional phase, one that aims at a communicative language teaching emphasising negotiation of meaning approach, yet one that is focussed on accuracy of students’ locutions. CLT has been recommended in second language teaching for over 40 years. Its significant aim is maximising communication among participants as students develop a range of skills towards communicative competence (Hymes, 1972; Savignon, 1983).

In the 1980’s the Nattinger (1984, p. 391) view saw CLT practice as:

quite diverse, yet underlying all of its variations are the similarities that communicative competence is the goal at each level of instruction, interaction between language users and their environment is a primary objective of all exercises, and the processes involved in using language, that is, the strategies for making sense of something and for negotiating meaning, are the centre of attention.

Thornbury (1998, p. 113) argued that “communication should not just be the goal of CLT, it should be the process of instruction itself”. Teacher-learner talk was seen to have a key role in types of conversation that were used to scaffold language development. Social interaction theorists such as Vygotsky (1978, p. 86), through “instructional conversation” supported the

formative role played of conversation in learning. Whereas instruction exercises a role of enforcing authority and planning, and while conversation is generated through equality and response, teaching brings those two actions together.

Placing spoken and written text in context provides a basis for analysing relationships between interactants, as speaker and listener or as writer and reader. Utterances and text captured in a transcription provide an opportunity for critical assessment of the social dimension of the communication taking place. As Wittgenstein (1984, p. 104) observed, “actions contribute to the sense of the scene”. In a highly coordinated way, human beings have the ability to perceive cultural events through the setting in which they occur. Experience and knowledge about expectations in those settings help to identify the role players, as well as the likely types of turn-taking and its timing. A study was needed that could demonstrate through surface features of teacher and student dialogue on content through a socialisation process the likely patterns of interaction that might develop and provide potential for pedagogy.

CLT and IRE/F

Pattern of IRE/F organisation often depends on the pedagogical purpose of the lesson. For example in a LOTE class, oral build up of vocabulary with a teacher may be preparation for a writing class. Students have to make language choices on the basis of inferring from the academic task structure of the lesson and the social participation protocols established by their teacher. Such cognitive and psycholinguistic ability to make those adjustments is influenced by students’ communicative competencies, which Johnson (1995, p. 99) referred to as “culturally acquired linguistics and interactional competencies” and stressed having a need, or a desire to communicate as optimal conditions for classroom learning and second language acquisition. Students require opportunities to initiate, to control the topic of discussion, and to self-select when to participate (p. 100). Such conditions also consider the importance of both meaning-focussed communication and form-focussed instruction. Sufficient instructional support from teachers is needed so that students are able to participate in language-related activities that are just beyond their current level of proficiency. Also, opportunities are needed for students to use planned and unplanned discourse in a range of authentic contexts.

Johnson (1995) claimed that where teacher-student interaction in classrooms follows an IRE interactional exchange, student language use is limited to individual words; also it is usually generated from textbooks and given in direct response to a teacher’s nomination. Interaction is tightly controlled and formulaic patterns of teacher-student talk dominate, in which the teacher controls who speaks, when and about what. Where teacher-student interactions are more spontaneous and adaptive, both students and teacher mutually construct the structure and content of the interaction. Further, the pattern of communication creates opportunities for students to use language. Appropriateness of either type of teacher-student interaction depends on the pedagogical purpose of a lesson, language proficiency of students and frames of

reference through which teachers and students judge the appropriateness of their communicative behaviour. Frames of reference influence how teachers shape ways they choose to organise patterns of communication in their second language classrooms.

Previous studies overall suggested that a focus has not been on language production effects on students but rather on its structure and its value as a tool in developing activity types and cognition. There is a gap in the literature relative to the potential of the third turn in the essential teaching exchange as a productive pedagogical moment. A point of departure in this study relates to how the literature informs pedagogical practice (Hayes, Lingard & Mills 2000) in making pedagogy more productive as the teacher pursues a goal of helping students to realise communicative competence in second language classes.

CLT methodology

The Richards and Rodgers (2001) framework of a method is consistently used to analyse methodology in second language teaching. Through their framework, method is understood to be principles underlying views on language and on language learning. Those viewpoints inform a design of objectives for a curriculum which articulates roles to be assumed by a teacher and of students and for the materials used to construct tasks that drive activities for learning. A method is thirdly seen to be enacted through a procedure which consists of techniques and practices in the classroom, brought into effect in response to an approach and design. Essentially in communicative language teaching, contexts are presented that allow students to develop language skills that are used in authentic communication.

It is during the third turn in talk exchanges between teacher and students that further elaborated talk is generated. Features of talk are identifiable at that point in the exchange. Quality of language use is demonstrated through the one who takes that turn and exerts a distinctive influence on the following moves in the exchanges (Lemke, 1985, 1990). Other facets of language use have been elaborated by Edwards and Westgate (1994, p. 125) – they realise the three moves in the IRE/F exchange as constituting the “essential teaching exchange”, a term they attributed to Young (1984). There is potential for the third turn to be the point at which talk enables productive pedagogies (Hayes et al., 2000) to take place. When a teacher uses the third turn in a learner-centred way or when a student takes the turn traditionally attributed to the teacher, there is potential for pedagogy in the higher intellectual ability category to be applied. The cycle of teacher question, student answer, teacher evaluation and provision of next question, and selection of addressee, is being challenged in education practice. Teachers are being called on to “extend beyond the routine” to effect “a sustained exchange” (Education Queensland, 2002, p. 4). As the recurring talk pattern and main feature of classroom routinised talk, IRE is being challenged for stifling student contributions. Discussion in classroom talk literature on role of third turns with potential for quality follow-up moves is therefore critical in informing about teacher talk in second language teaching classrooms and on CLT approaches.

Teachers beliefs and helping to develop communicative competence

CLT is seen as a general approach or as a “bundle of approaches to SL teaching whose primary goal is the development of communicative competence” (Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, & Son, 2004). Approaches have in common four closely connected features by which Brown (2000) defined CLT in the classroom: goals are focused on all components of communicative competence; language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of language for meaningful purposes; fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary; and students ultimately have to use the target language productively and receptively in unrehearsed contexts.

Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) showed that LOTE teachers’ beliefs about CLT affected how they viewed developing LOTE students’ communicative skills. General guidelines related to students’ ability to communicate in the target language, use made of authentic texts, giving students opportunities to speak and write from their own experience, calling for students to generate unrehearsed responses and providing informative follow-up to students allowing them to manage their own learning (Board of Senior Secondary School Studies, 1995, p. 4).

In a more recent study, Mangubhai et al. (2004) framed characteristics of CLT within the Joyce and Weil (1992) teaching model. They combined theoretical assumptions and teachers’ perceptions in a framework that took into account:

1. goal focus;
2. theoretical assumptions;
3. strategies;
4. the social system which included roles of teacher, of students, the relationship between teachers and students, normal student behaviours;
5. the support system of teacher skills and attributes, and special materials; and
6. principles of teacher reaction.

Criteria attributes were seen to focus on the development of students’ communicative competence in a second language. Students in that study were actively involved in constructing meaning and solving their own problems in interactive sessions with their peers and teachers. Communication among classroom participants was stimulated by genuine issues. It followed a natural pattern of discourse rather than being pre-determined or a staged routine or manipulated by a power figure. A student-centred classroom culture was characterised by a teacher’s tolerance of learner error and one in which students’ language risk-taking was overtly encouraged. There was an emphasis on meeting students’ needs and recognising socio-cultural differences in styles of learning. Meaning-focussed self-expression was emphasised in preference to language structure drills, and grammar was situated within activities directed at developing communicative competence rather than being a singular focus of a lesson. Use of the

target language was optimised as the medium of classroom communication. Strategies were used to enhance a communicative language teaching approach. These included role plays, games, small group and paired activities within four macroskills: speaking, listening, writing and reading with the target language experienced through resources which were linguistically and culturally authentic. More attention was given initially to fluency and to appropriate use than to structural correctness. Tasks required negotiation of meaning by students, and questions asked of them required follow-up. Opinions were to be expressed and the formulation of reasoned positions formulated.

Within the social system created in classrooms, a teacher's role was seen to facilitate communication processes. The teacher was to be guide rather than transmitter of knowledge, an organiser of resources, analyst of student needs, counsellor and group process manager. Students were expected to be active participants, also proactive team members who asked for information, sought clarification, expressed opinions, debated, negotiated meaning and monitored their own thought processes. There were friendly, cooperative and where possible informal relationships between teachers and students. It was normal for students to engage in activities as autonomous learners, defining and solving their own problems, taking risks in cooperation with their peers and teachers and in using the target language (Mangubhai et al., 2004).

Second language learning in formal contexts is an intentional process for which success depends on gradual automatization of tasks that are first performed with a high degree of conscious intention and control. This has two fundamental implications for second language pedagogy:

1. there is a central role for using the target language, otherwise learners cannot develop even a limited capacity for automatic processing;
2. conduct of classroom activities should be explicitly reflective, whether the principal focus is language learning or language use.

CLT and sociolinguistic use of third turns

CLT as a principle in second language teaching currently pervades teacher thinking and action even when a teacher is eclectic in the choice of moment-to-moment classroom techniques. Communicative competencies valued by the teacher should be evident at the third turn when a choice is made of the way the turn is to be taken. Role of teacher as authority of language knowledge is tempered by the role students have in generating language to learn it. A teacher's conduct in developing student communicative competence needs a congruent social relationship between teacher and learners.

Organisational ways of conducting interactions (Poole, 1990) are reflective of the culture in which language is embedded. Kramsch (1993) established that culture was so intrinsically embedded in target language that teachers had to incorporate competence and performance into lessons. She recognised that the range of behaviours accepted within the social conventions of typical speech communities using the target language may not be fully realised in the second language classroom. At the third part of the exchange, the teacher was in a position to provide opportunities for students to develop sociolinguistic competence to some extent.

Gee (1986) showed that language learning in the standard dialect socialised students into the discourse practices of the target culture. As new forms of discourse were acquired learners' interactions were organised and interpreted through social and cultural forces. Scollon (1995) explained that an ability to use language to communicate is enhanced by understanding discourse patterns of a language. For learners to make maximum sense of incoming aural input, they needed background in the form of sociocultural knowledge to assist them in interpreting the text. Schemata (Silberstein, 1994) were related to the content and rhetorical structure conventions that framed incoming messages. Learners could make sense of input they were attending to by having knowledge of relevant content and formal schemata. Brumfit & Carter (1986) showed that social and cultural schemata were established through reading.

Listening and speaking, reading and writing are intrinsic components of second language teaching. Goals associated with teaching them provide the essential elements of sociolinguistic competence (Kramsch, 1993). Yet as Crozet and Liddicoat (1999) noted, cultural acquisition is part of the "hidden curriculum", a description echoed by Mangubhai (2000). Social and cultural factors are embedded in ways that messages are produced and interpreted. So when teachers provide the third part as repair to a student response they are likely to frame communication as much within socio-cultural appropriateness as by linguistic parameters. When teachers set up role plays for students in communicative language classes, or when they apply the notional-functional approach to teaching form-genre relationships, they identify with past events as reported by van Ek and Alexander (1975) and Munby (1978). They sensitise students to social factors and consider how socially appropriate the students perceive the language. Even the process approach to writing incorporates a sense of social context, given that the audience is considered vital in conferencing, team writing, drafting and redrafting stages. By producing their own writing, student-learners can focus on the context in which their writing is going to be perceived as well as through the particular genres.

Attention to genre in language classrooms is not confined to printed texts. Second language students have to learn appropriate register for their interactions where level of formality instance is specific to the cultural situation. The teacher has a specific role in the third turn of the IRE/F exchange to foreground for students appropriate register for the language choices they make.

Teachers with communicative language teaching orientations are inclined to address complex issues surrounding communicative competence in their lessons. The third turn is an opportune part of each exchange for expression of communicative competence understanding.

Communicative competence as communicative language ability (CLA) and the third turn

Cazden (1988) identified problem and complexity of communication, early in her research on the nature of a communicative classroom. Hymes (1972) and Savignon (1983) recognised that communicative competence was the aim in classrooms which valued communicative language teaching and learning. Yet an understanding of that competence was not always shared among teachers and not always made explicit to students.

Given parameters of communicative competence, for linguistic competence to be achieved in the language classroom, a focus on the accuracy of form may be required to reduce the likelihood of fossilisation taking place (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Ellis, 1995). A teacher with an eye for accuracy of student responses uses the third part as an opportunity for students to repair their own utterances. Where they study grammatical structures as they appear naturally in written or spoken texts, students learn inductively to develop hypotheses about particular language choices over others. When a teacher uses the third turn to guide the students' focus on language choices, s/he is ultimately leading students to outline rules governing those choices (Riggenbach, 1999, p. 10). Developing student awareness of prosodic features of the second language could realise students' linguistic accuracy by engaging them for example in word stress and intonation activities such as those shown in the Wennerstrom (1991) study on oral presentations. In studies conducted by Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) use of follow-up in the third part of the exchange was apparent.

Awareness of a discourse orientation to language in the classroom leads teachers to recognise that language has intricate properties yet it is systematic in its numerous dimensions.

Riggenbach (1999, p. 6) identified how communicative language teaching can be shaped in many ways, depending on a teacher's orientation when working on tasks with students. At times an emphasis is on negotiating meaning, in which case reader-text and speaker-listener contexts can be used to stimulate strategic competence development.

Communicative competence is a complex concept that includes linguistic and sociocultural discourse and strategic competencies (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980). It comprises the skills of pronunciation, grammatical knowledge, discourse knowledge and strategic competence. Discourse competence is evident when language users produce a string of cohesive utterances or sentence fragments that make coherent sense in the context of the communication. Strategic competence is an ability to counter breakdown in communication. Linguistic competence refers to the level of accuracy of output by students, evident in their spoken and written discourse. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the social appropriateness of utterances

they make and statements completed in appropriate cultural context. Strategies that maintain conversation and other communication in a way that is culturally appropriate add to the understanding a teacher has of CLT. A discourse orientation to language aims at finding consistencies in the language system at the same time as recognising its many facets. Learning to negotiate meaning in speaker-listener contexts and in reading contexts can effectively stimulate learners' strategic competence, while they appreciate the social and cultural dynamics that operate in a text and are present in speech events.

Bachman (1990, p. 100) regarded strategic competence as much as an offensive strategy as a defensive one, aimed primarily at compensating a deficiency in language (Canale & Swain, 1980). Strategic competence, in the view of Canale and Swain, is an important part of all communicative language use, not only in situations in which language abilities are deficient and must be compensated for by other means. Within this view therefore, all conscious language learning in formal contexts is an intentional process shaped by explicit plans and strategies; yet proficiency in a second language is a complex skill that is most successfully achieved when utilised automatically. For proficiency to be developed, the learner has first to master processes by conscious effort. Bachman (1990) recognised strategic competence as a set of metacognitive processes, or "higher executive processes" that allow cognitive management of language use (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 70). He located strategic competence as a complex skill, intrinsic to all human behaviour, operating below as well as above the threshold of conscious awareness.

In identifying the role of the development of communicative competencies in learners, Little (2001) recognised that second language learning in formal contexts is an intentional process which learners develop by first exercising conscious intention and control. He maintained that use of the target language is axiomatic even to developing a limited capacity for automatic processing. He also believed that teachers should therefore establish among students an explicitly reflective approach to the way lessons are conducted, involving them in task assessment, planning and execution. They have to become involved in collaborative and project-based learning so that they learn to apply to second language learning an extension of the strategic competencies they bring to the classroom from their world experience.

Bachman (1990) drew on other writers' definitions of communicative competence, notably Munby (1978) and Canale and Swain (1980) for grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, and Canale (1983) by distinguishing sociolinguistic as sociocultural rules and discourse competence as cohesion and coherence. Hymes' (1982) work contributed to understanding resource grammar, discourse grammar and performance style. Bachman and Palmer (1982) sought to validate components of communicative competence. They found from developing a battery of tests that grammatical competence and pragmatic competence were closely associated (Bachman, 1990) and distinct from sociolinguistic competence. Language competence therefore was grouped under two concepts, organisational competence to include

morphology, syntax, vocabulary, cohesion and organisation, and pragmatic competence incorporating functions that are performed in language use in addition to sociolinguistic competence. Strategic competence was also incorporated.

Communicative competence referred to an ability to use language to manage situations that did not have ready-made solutions. Munby (1978) included linguistic coding in communicative competence, socio-cultural orientation, socio-semantic knowledge base and discursal operation. Research strategies were employed to assess the degree of competence developed in students by teachers over a teaching period. Canale and Swain (1980) built on language teaching and testing theory. They developed a concept of grammatical competence of lexis, morphology, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology, and also distinguished sociolinguistic competence of socio-cultural rules and discourse rules. These were further distinguished by the Canale (1983) concept of communicative competence which extended the definition to compensatory alleviation of breakdown in communication, and enhanced the rhetorical effect of utterances. They extended the definition to strategic competence as a compensatory function to cover inadequate linguistic competence. Hymes (1982) expanded linguistic competence to include formal resource grammar, and features of discourse related to informality and politeness (Bachman, 1990, pp. 84-85).

Strategic competence is an ability to anticipate then circumvent breakdown in conversation by using a strategy from a range of learned techniques. These include interactional skills which support production strategies, such as: asking a question, paraphrasing, seeking help, coining a word, providing first language translation, repeating an utterance and rephrasing. Within strategic competency, Bachman recognised skills of matching new information to be processed with relevant information that was already available, and mapping it onto existing language ability (1990, p. 102).

Impact on syllabus

LOTE syllabuses in Queensland schools have caused teachers to be exposed to the Canale and Swain (1980) understanding of communicative competence. Bachman (1990) developed an assessment model identifying forms of communicative language ability in learners. He saw that language competence comprised “a set of specific knowledge components that are utilised in communication via language” (p. 84) from an “organisational” perspective, a “pragmatic” perspective and a “strategic” perspective. The organisational perspective included: (a) grammatical competence of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology; and (b) textual competence related to cohesion and rhetorical organisation. The pragmatic component included (a) illocutionary competence of ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions; and (b) sociolinguistic competence, which is sensitive to dialect and language variety, to register, to naturalness, to cultural references and to figures of speech. The

strategic component incorporated management of the metacognitive processes of language use: (a) assessment of appropriacy, (b) planning the utterance and (c) executing it.

Communicative Competence and Communicative Language Teaching

Traditionally, teachers have focussed on accuracy in syntax in helping students to develop linguistic competence. Within a communicative approach there is less emphasis on form and more on meaning. Yet in order to prevent fossilisation of errors, research evidence from Ellis (1995) has suggested that focus on accuracy is also necessary. He supported Fotos (1994) in suggesting that presenting grammar in inductive ways was potentially more effective than teaching explicit deductive grammar.

Communicative approaches now may encourage students to act as language researchers by examining grammatical structures as they occur in texts, and inductively developing an hypothesis about the rules regarding those structures. So a micro level of focus can occur. By providing follow-up in the third turn teachers are helping students develop their communicative competence. Riggensbach (1999) has pointed out that teachers use a range of features common to CLT without being explicit about them in their teaching. For example they incorporate word stress, intonation and other prosodic features into their model building.

In Bachman's terms, "textual" competence includes knowledge of conventions for joining utterances together to form a text, or a unit of spoken or written language. It consists of two or more utterances or sentences that are structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization (1990, p. 88). Research shows that students can identify cohesive devices in larger text (Silberstein, 1994) and identify turn-taking devices in informal conversation (Dornyei & Thurrel, 1992). Riggensbach (1999) has pointed to ways that students notice discourse markers and transition devices in learning listening strategies (Dunkel & Davis, 1994) and in planning oral presentations (Wennerstrom, 1991). Awareness of the greater context is a necessary condition for creating and maintaining cohesion and coherence across text.

When the linguistic resource is not immediately available, students need to exercise their autonomy and creativity to find ways of compensating and communicating. Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Yule and Tarone (1990) showed how students use such strategies. By analysing ways to deconstruct, comprehend and construct language, students can use strategies to negotiate meaning by structuring new input to make it comprehensible. They decipher text that was opaque or they shape and reshape their communication so the receiver of the message can understand them (Riggensbach 1999, p. 12). Learners can become aware of patterns and regularities in language and they can be encouraged to develop strategic competence through stimulating awareness of ways to negotiate meaning. At the third turn, teachers can choose to wait for students to make the kinds of negotiations which enhance strategic competence and the students' overall communicative competence or they can initiate strategies for their students.

The Bachman (1990) model of communicative competence included organisational and pragmatic competence. Within organisational competence there is the ability to recognise grammatical value of features of the spoken and written language. Gaining textual competence allows students to recognise cohesive features, the signs and referents, and to identify a text and its parts by its rhetorical structure. The pragmatic competence component includes an ability to recognise relationships as they apply between language signs and language users and the context of communication. Pragmatics is concerned with relationships between utterances and acts or functions that speakers and writers intend to perform through those utterances. Illocutionary competence refers to functions to which language is put and knowing the pragmatic conventions in context. Sociolinguistic competence allows language to be used in ways that are sensitive to cultural conventions of the context.

Communicative language teaching approaches support use of authentic rather than contrived language in the classroom. They stress the importance of an actual reason for communicating as well as supporting the concept of a learner-centred classroom.

Role for focus on form in the curriculum

Documentation of sustained gains from a FonF is not substantial. However, insight into a long-term role for FonF has shown that lengthy instruction is not necessary. It is possible that if learners notice the form and it is frequently available in appropriate input, then no further FonF may be necessary. FonF can be implicit and relatively short-term (Trahey, 1996).

Long (1991, in Ellis, 1994, p. 639) argued that instruction built around a focus on form results in faster learning and higher levels of proficiency than instruction built around focus on specific forms. That is, instruction that seeks to isolate linguistic forms in order to teach and test them one at a time is a technique based on a structural syllabus. Form focussed instruction on the other hand is a departure from that traditional technique and is a significant development in the CLT literature. In general, it aims to focus on spontaneous as well as planned performance and “consciousness raising” (Sharwood-Smith, 1981) or “input enhancement” (Sharwood-Smith, 1991) among students. Attention is paid to the formation or construction of utterances and of text that learners produce themselves. Studies by Spada and Lightbown (1993), Doughty and Varela (1998), Doughty and Williams (1998), Doughty (1991), White (1990), and Lyster and Ranta (1997) have informed second language acquisition (SLA) by their work on form focussed teaching.

Doughty and Williams (1998) recognised a fundamental goal in second language acquisition in the classroom to be teaching language for the development of communicative competence. An aim of focus on form (FonF) studies was to establish how to improve learner approximation to the target language through instruction. In providing two approaches, proactive and reactive, the writers recognised that either or both may be more effective, depending on classroom context.

A proactive stance has the teacher deciding the true linguistic form for focussing attention, based on criteria that are made explicit in terms of learner needs and priorities rather than isolated intuition. The teacher makes proactive pedagogical decisions in relation to:

applicability of FonF to the learning problem, choosing between being reactive or proactive, choice of focal linguistic forms, explicitness of the form focus, making the form focus sequential or integrated and the role of FonF in the curriculum.

A reactive approach requires a teacher to notice and be prepared to handle various difficulties as they arise. Language learning goals that teachers and learners set along the way need to be taken into account as a guide to determining whether and when to focus on form in order to achieve fluent and accurate use of the target language. The degree of explicitness of FonF activities has to be decided—whether the focus is to be unobtrusive as part of natural language use, or if it is to be explicit, directing learner attention to the problem area. On occasions then, it is a practical issue for a teacher to decide whether to implement separation of attention to form or to integrate it during a communicative class.

Classroom learning context has to be considered before choosing the type of FonF to apply.

Another factor is whether the second language learning is of a foreign language, with little or no input of the target language outside the classroom, or in a second language context that provides daily input of the target language outside the classroom. A teacher has to decide on the applicability of FonF to the learning problem—whether or not to focus on form. It can be argued that some forms of language are readily learned and that the form comes “easily”.

In his monitor theory of second language acquisition, Krashen (1982) was opposed to supporting two knowledge systems and he viewed acquired knowledge as the only real knowledge. The hypothesis maintained that learned knowledge was somehow subordinate to acquired knowledge and that there was no interaction between the two systems. A FonF stance relies rather on learners’ cognitive processing capabilities to integrate explicitly learned and represented knowledge into the developing interlanguage system (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 205). The teacher’s job is therefore to provide assistance to the learner who needs to attend to particular aspects of language in order to analyse them, to compare them to the developing interlanguage and to restructure them for more efficient use.

The primary aim of focus on form is to promote accuracy (Doughty & Varela, 1998, p. 129) but students do not learn language instantaneously. A focus on form can achieve language learning communicatively when learners’ attention is brought to understand specific formal properties of the target language. Teachers also can elect to provide corrective feedback on learners’ errors during the course of communicative activities. One study by Doughty (1991) focussed learners’ attention on form through “meaning-oriented” instruction compared with “rule-oriented instruction” during the acquisition of relative clauses. Meaning took the form of giving support

as lexical and semantic rephrasing of sentences, and strategies for clarifying sentences. The rule-oriented group received explicit rule statements and on-screen sentence manipulation. Both groups showed higher performance on relative clauses than a control group and the meaning-oriented group also appeared to have higher comprehension of the text content.

Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) suggested intake is promoted when learners use tools such as interpretation task for helping them to notice and comprehend features of input. Ultimately restructuring occurs, allowing an individual's interlanguage to develop (Doughty, 1991). Interlanguage is a term used to identify the current status of the language proficiency of a non-native speaker. Facilitating selective attention by devising instructional activities that equip learners with conscious rules or that help them interpret the meanings of specific forms in the input, is both psycholinguistically feasible and possible in practical terms (Ellis, 1994, p. 657). Sharwood-Smith (1980) provided a "selective attention" hypothesis which suggested that instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learner to specifically structured regularities of the form of the language, as distinct from message content, will significantly increase the rate of acquisition under certain conditions over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring the language under natural circumstances where there is minimal or sporadic attention to the form. This selective attention to instruction may not enable learners to acquire fully what is taught when it is taught, but it prepares the way for its subsequent acquisition. Gass (1991, p. 137, in Ellis, 1994, p. 656) also claimed that "instruction works by helping learners pay selective attention to form and form-meaning connections in the input. It provides learners with tools that help them to recognise those features which are in need of modification".

Reactive and proactive focus

Focus on form is a responsive teaching intervention that involves occasional shifts in reaction to salient errors, according to Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 205). An advantage of this approach is that the teacher does not choose the form but chooses the classroom errors that are pervasive, systematic and "remediable" for learners at that stage of development. Recasts of learner utterances are known to be more effective than teacher models but teachers should not aim any intervention too far beyond the learners' developmental readiness (Pienemann, 1987, p. 89). Arguments against this concept of waiting for developmental readiness are that in classrooms there is a wide range of ability and therefore it is impractical to teach only to the next phase of development. According to Lightbown (1998, p. 181 & p. 206), learners do internalise advanced language that can eventually become auto-input for future restructuring. Furthermore, learners acquire knowledge first and then gain control over its use and it is found that FonF causes later "noticing" in the input, thereby facilitating its internalisation.

The most effective feedback techniques in stimulating learner-generated repairs include the teacher providing metalinguistic clues, making requests for clarification, repeating the learner error, and eliciting a repaired response (Doughty & Williams, 1998, pp. 207-208). The "garden

path” technique (Tomasello & Herron, 1988, 1989) of leading students to the point where they make a predictable error and then dealing with it, is shown to be more effective than telling learners in advance about a linguistic regularity plus its exceptions. Teachers point out the error at the moment of overgeneralisation or at the moment the error is made. In using proactive techniques, a teacher has to prepare a task in advance, in which learners are guided to comprehend or to produce messages involving the learning difficulty.

Doughty and Williams (1998) explained that there is no ideal way of teaching language with a focus on form. Neither does teaching the forms or using meaning-based instruction provide the complete solution. Some efforts at FonF have teachers making direct reference to a lexical point, while other forms are more implicit.

Implicit or explicit focus on form(FonF)

Pedagogical principles involved in focus on form are considered appropriate for enhancing second language acquisition. Doughty and Varela (1998, pp. 114-115) considered it essential to begin FonF without interrupting communicative flow. This observation was reinforced by Lightbown (1991), Lightbown and Spada (1990) and Spada and Lightbown (1993). They recognised that teachers who focus on learner attention to specific language features, during otherwise interactive communicative activities, are more effective than those who never focus on grammar or those who provide isolated grammar lessons. They maintained that the target form should arise incidentally in an otherwise content-based lesson in which the overriding focus is on communication or meaning: then teachers should draw attention to form rather than leaving it to chance and students would then notice the linguistic features without any assistance. In such situations, a teacher would incorporate a grammatical point into the linguistic input perhaps several times during a lesson.

An active knowledge of second language acquisition has to be exercised by teachers in thinking about how students learn. They have to be aware of a learner’s mental representation of the target language. This includes access to language knowledge during production and comprehension and metalinguistic ability in language acquisition. Learners need an ability to analyse rules and to restructure utterances. This ability presupposes that they are also engaged in hypothesis testing, cognitive comparison, and noticing “gaps” between their interlanguage (IL) and the target language (TL) (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 228).

An aim of implicit focus on form is to attract learner attention and to avoid metalinguistic discussion, thus minimising any interruption to the communication of meaning. With explicit teaching on the other hand, an aim is to direct learner attention and to exploit pedagogical grammar. Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 232) suggested an explicit focus may be helpful for rules that are not clear-cut.

Carroll and Swain (1993) and Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 233) have explained that any form of feedback is better than none. Some forms of altering text to draw attention to the written

feature, such as highlighting, colour coding and font manipulation have been successful. These input enhancement strategies are equivalent in intonational focus to learner errors (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 236.) These are implicit techniques for they simply make forms perceptually salient without offering any explicit expectation as to the kind of processing that should take place. Sharwood-Smith (1991, 1993) has cautioned about this technique in claiming that learners may not focus on the linguistic property and the effect may be nonsalient to their learning mechanisms (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 237).

Feedback

The role of feedback in the acquisition of specific grammar forms is that feedback results in modified output, the product of which has a direct impact on second language acquisition (Swain, 1985) via the enriched input it supplies. Ellis (1999) claimed that focussed feedback is a viable pedagogic option even in large classes. It is one way of achieving what Long (1991) called focus on form, an attempt to draw students' attention to linguistic features in lessons where there is an overriding focus on meaning or communication. Further, focused feedback via requests for clarification provides a way of achieving such a focus on form relatively unobtrusively (Ellis & Takashima, 1999, p. 187).

Teacher feedback on error takes the form that a teacher considers appropriate. With explicit correction, a teacher provides the correct form. Recasting is another option, as a teacher reformulates, or paraphrases, or repeats with a change, or repeats with a change and emphasis. All or part of a participant's utterance may be repeated without the error. A teacher may request clarification as s/he misunderstood the utterance which was ill-formed. Metalinguistic feedback or a comment on the nature of how well-formed a student's utterance is, is another means of having a student produce the correct form. A teacher might elicit completion of his/her own utterance by strategically pausing to allow the participant to finish the phrase, or s/he might use a question to elicit the correct form or ask for a reformulation of the utterance. Repetition is also used. A teacher repeats the participant's erroneous utterance in isolation with an adjusted intonation to indicate the error.

Recasting

White (1990, p. 207) showed that exposure to *positive evidence*, namely grammatical features in the target language, may also require *negative evidence*. That is, learners need to know what is not grammatical when their interlanguage contains rules that are more general than is required to be accurate. Learners may require assistance to discover the ways their interlanguage is different from the target language. Recasting ill-formed utterances in a focused way by addressing only one error and providing the target-like exemplar provides systematic information when adults are correcting children (Bohannon & Stanowicz, 1988, in Doughty & Varela, 1998, p. 117). Such recasting does not halt communication and is rather incidental to the primary goal of mutual understanding. Non-native speakers are likely to incorporate recasts in

their later utterances (Oliver, 1995, in Doughty & Varela 1998, p. 118). So implicit focus-on-form is operationalised as corrective recasting. That is, a teacher can draw a learner's attention to problematic linguistic features, and subsequently provide a specific exemplar, so learners make a cognitive comparison between their interlanguage utterance and the teacher's recast.

Uptake

Teachers may become aware of a student's "uptake", which is a participant's immediate utterance following a teacher's feedback. When considering focus-on-form, that utterance constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to an aspect of the student's utterance. S/he may not have been clear about any specific linguistic focus the teacher had intended. If there is no uptake by the participant then the same topic usually continues. Lyster and Ranta (1997, pp. 50-51) identified uptake in terms of "repair". It involves correctly changing the form of the error made. An alternative is making an utterance that still needs repair, such as acknowledging the error, or making the same error or making a different error, being off target, hesitating, or making partial repair.

Correction

Providing negative evidence (correction) in response to a student's attempts at formulating target language is considered to facilitate language development (Lyster, 1998a). And recasting is an effective child learning practice. More than half a teacher's corrective feedback in primary immersion classes in an observed study by Lyster and Ranta (1997) involved recasts. That form of feedback did not lead to student-generated forms of repair because the recasts already provided the correct forms. So there was limited negotiation between teacher and student to intentionally draw attention to form, and productively engage students in the discourse. The researchers found that negotiation of form was initiated by lexical errors while recasts were used for grammatical and phonological errors. Negotiation of form led students to immediate repair more readily than recasts or explicit correction, particularly for lexical and grammatical errors, but not for phonological errors. Phonological repairs resulted primarily from recasts.

In his studies of Part A of the COLT observation scheme, Lyster (1998b, p. 52) found that 62% of the time in second language classrooms was spent on teacher-led whole class activities, yet the classes were considered to be communicatively oriented. In comparison, 78% of the time was attributed to correction as a teaching practice in first-language classes.

Tomasello and Herron (1988, 1989, in Ellis, 1994, p. 639) investigated the impact of formal correction on language acquisition. They compared two kinds of instruction on problematic constructions that led to overgeneralisation and transfer errors in French. One treatment was that problems were explained and illustrated. The other "down the garden path" treatment induced students to make errors, then corrected them, and this treatment was more effective. An explanation of the results is that these students were encouraged to make cognitive decisions between their own deviant and correct target-language utterances that may increase their

motivation through curiosity to know the rules and exceptions. This type of focus on form is in a context similar to natural communication when errors are made and is therefore the kind of grammar construction favoured by Long (1991) and Ellis (1994, p. 639).

Lightbown and Spada (1990) also found that learners who received error correction achieved greater accuracy in the production of some features, for example *There is...* rather than *It has...* but not others such as *the hat blue*. Focus on form is preferred to focus on forms in which practice and drilling of correct forms is substantial. Lightbown (1991, in Ellis, 1994, p. 640) explained that when students' attention was drawn to the error they knew precisely how to improve what they wanted to say. The teacher's interventions had simply made clear to them when to use the correct form that they had wanted to use. Corrective feedback therefore suggests that when it occurs in response to naturally occurring errors or in the context of ongoing efforts to communicate, it is helpful to second language acquisition.

Other studies suggest that formal correction may have a limited effect on acquisition (Cohen, Larsen-Freeman, & Tarone, 1991). Corrective feedback may depend on the conditions relating to the provision of teacher correction and to the choice of feature being corrected. And it seems it is only likely to result in rule acquisition if it occurs as part of natural learning processes. Use of the target structure in production requires meaningful situations and suggests that there is an argument for exploiting comprehension-based tasks more fully in formal instruction.

Errors

Teachers often respond to students' errors of comprehension and production. An error of comprehension is considered a deviation an inappropriate reply of an L2 user to a question asked or command expressed. It is caused by lack of knowledge, representing a lack of competence (Corder, 1976). According to Ellis (1995, p. 51), errors are the result of processing problems that prevent learners from accessing their knowledge of the target language. Surface features of errors include morphology, syntax and vocabulary, in addition to omissions, additions and regularisations. Corder (1974) applied a three-fold framework of systematicity which included: random pre-systematic errors, when a learner is unaware of a particular rule; systematic errors, when a learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one; and inconsistency, when a learner makes a mistake by using a target language rule, a post-systematic error.

The source of error is an indicator of the language learner's competence. Teachers who focus on error analysis of their students' utterances, may be paying attention to communicative competence at the linguistic level. They may bring to the attention of their students the types of errors they make. Origin of the error might be through transfer from first or another language, or "intralingual", an error caused by inappropriate use of a rule in the target language such as overgeneralising. A third type is "unique" error, induced by the setting. Other errors may be

developmental, as the learner attempts to build up hypotheses about the target language on the basis of limited experience (Littlewood, 1984).

Teachers have to evaluate the seriousness of any errors students make. A CLT response to errors is to consider effects that error has on the person being addressed, the addressee. Effect can be gauged in terms of comprehension of the speaker's meaning; or the affective response of the addressee, usually a teacher. Native speakers tend to judge lexical errors as more serious than grammatical errors and to judge global grammatical errors as more likely to interfere with comprehension than local errors, such as wrong word order, missing or wrongly placed sentence connectors, and syntactic overgeneralisations (Littlewood, 1984). Attempts to identify a hierarchy of errors according to the effect on intelligibility have been unsuccessful, although non-native speaker judgements tend to be harsher than native speaker judgments.

Ellis (1994, p. 67) recommended that teachers pay attention to errors of communication, that is to the semantic and global grammatical errors. He suggested errors should be evaluated by asking whether meaning is comprehensible and whether the error causes irritation. Frequency and generality of the error feature also come into consideration. Errors are to be considered an inevitable feature of the learning process. Ellis (1994, pp. 583-584) developed terminology for types of error correction teachers make. These included feedback, repair, and correction.

Feedback is a general term for information that listeners give on reception, and comprehension of messages. Vigil and Oller (1976) referred to cognitive feedback as actual understanding.

Affective feedback was considered to be motivational support between interactors, who might be teacher and students or students themselves. Repair referred to attempts to identify and remedy communication problems including those that are a result of linguistic errors. Repair is common in classrooms and in ethnomethodological research (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). Correction referred to attempts to deal with linguistic errors such as supplying negative evidence in the form of feedback that draws a learner's attention to the error made. Chaudron 1977 (in Ellis, 1994, p. 584) identified four different ways of treating errors: one which results in learners developing an autonomous ability to correct themselves on an item; those that result in the elicitation of a correct response from the learner; others that demonstrate a reaction by the teacher that clearly transforms, or disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement; and those that provide positive or negative reinforcement involving expressions of approval or disapproval.

Teachers need to pay attention to what students say as well as to the formal realisation of the message. Although it can be problematic for them to focus simultaneously on content, forms and classroom management, teachers need to be sensitive to the most appropriate opportunities for recasting utterances because communication may be hindered if correction is offered when a student is presenting an argument or explaining a point to a large group. The flow of their

thinking may be affected and may impact on communication. It may be more appropriate during pair work or small group work for correction to be made.

Culture of the Classroom and Code of Language Use

Teachers exercise a controlling influence on student talk at the third turn by correcting student utterances. Aiming at grammatical proficiency of responses made in the course of a lesson, teachers and researchers have given attention to a focus on forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1998). Learning how to talk about language itself in one's first language is a metadiscourse skill that can be transferred to the use of a second language. Recent developments in Queensland education suggest that a focus on metalanguage in the classroom is evidence of productive pedagogies and a source of effective classroom teaching practice. Both dialogue and monologue strategies can be employed which establish basic techniques across themes. In terms of productive pedagogies, higher order thinking is applied to relationships in text such as comparison and contrast that a teacher has to make explicit. Repetition of content in engaging ways is important for learning to occur among first language learners of a discipline. Likewise in second language learning situations, presentation of repeated themes in a way that is entertaining and meaningful is part of a teacher's role.

Productive Pedagogies

The productive pedagogies framework has been selected as the pedagogical construct into which language data from the LOTE classes was put. The framework itself evolved from research conducted between 1998 and 2000 in the School Reform Longitudinal Study (SRLS) of Queensland schools (Education Queensland, 2001). It incorporated elements of students' learning experiences in classrooms which contributed to improved learning and social outcomes for students. It developed from the work of Newmann et al. (1996) through research at the Centre for Organisational Restructuring and Schools (CORS) at the University of Wisconsin (Porter, 1996), where it was shown that schools which had been "authentically restructured" produced higher achievement overall. Compared with conventional instruction and conventional organisations (Hayes et al., 2000), more equitable achievement resulted. All students benefited. The framework emphasised classroom practices in the form of standards of authentic instruction that contributed both to more equitable student outcomes and to increased student outcomes for all students.

The four dimensions of Productive Pedagogies are *intellectual quality, connectedness, supportive classroom environment and recognition of difference*. Those dimensions have been further categorised into twenty productive pedagogies.

Intellectual quality relates to higher order thinking and critical analysis. It includes deep knowledge of content in the area of the topic, deep understanding to the level of active acknowledgement by the students of concepts and ideas being explored, substantive conversation which is identified as conversational dialogue among students to create and

negotiate subject matter in contrast to teacher-fronted lessons, a view of knowledge as an abstract concept which bears challenge, and a sixth pedagogy, that of foregrounding language, grammar and technical vocabulary through metalinguistic discussion about talk and writing.

Connectedness refers to the relevance of classwork to those issues and problems outside school that connect school to the wider world. It includes knowledge integration across a range of subject areas and fields of knowledge, as well as making explicit connections with students' background knowledge. Connectedness to real-life contexts and the connectedness of lessons to a problem-based curriculum are pedagogies in which students are engaged in identifying and solving intellectual real context issues.

Supportive classroom environment includes creating opportunities for student control on the pace, direction or outcomes of lessons. There is social support which is characterised by mutual respect between teacher and students and among students, in which students are engaged and on task, and the criteria for judging student performance are made explicit. There are also opportunities for students to manage their behaviour in a self-regulatory way.

Recognition of difference encourages reference to diverse cultural knowledge in which non-dominant cultures are valued, and there is a sense of inclusivity which actively seeks participation of students from different backgrounds. A narrative teaching style is evident in contrast to an expository style, and group identity is recognised as contributing to building a sense of community and identity, in an attempt to foster active citizenship in the classroom.

Relevant research in conversation analysis (CA) has provided prosodic clues to the intimacy of interactions between speaker and listener. Fine analysis of non-verbal communication in association with the linguistic input from each speaker has informed other studies, but this study has analysed specifically the linguistic quality of talk components at the third turn and regarded the non-verbal communication as of secondary significance.

Teachers also have a controlling influence on use made of student talk from a corrective point of view. In an approach with a focus on language forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 1994) a teacher shows interest in a student's grammatical proficiency. Recent developments in Queensland education are based on productive pedagogies which Hayes et al. (2000) reported. The 20 pedagogies emerged from a review of classroom practices which teachers cited as the major source of effective classroom teaching practice. This chapter has positioned the study of teacher talk in second language classrooms in a transitional phase, aiming at a communicative language teaching, yet with a focus on accuracy of locutions. Emerging versions of CLT have become evident with potential being realised for productive pedagogy in LOTE classes.

Justification for the Study

Languages Other Than English (LOTE) classrooms provide students their only opportunity to hear and use a LOTE, since Australian English is the language of daily use at school and in the wider community. Language learning classroom environments are typically teacher-driven, so most classroom talk is generated at the initiation and evaluative turn locations in triadic dialogue. As a result, a teacher's choice of content in those slots is significant in shaping exchanges, and in establishing patterns of language use. A teacher's preferred approach is the one that prevails for students in his/her class.

The study is justified given that it brings to the fore a teacher's talk during moves at the third turn of the essential teaching exchange, every time it occurs. The study was needed to identify where in a teacher's talk, opportunities for productive pedagogy could be generated. The productive pedagogies framework provided a template for matching potential for productive teaching with the many types of evaluative/follow-up moves that are available whenever an IRE/F exchange occurs throughout a lesson. The results should be a valuable means of informing researchers more precisely on the nature of oral input available to second language learners, particularly at the teacher's third turn of classroom exchanges. By analysing the content of moves at the third turn, it should be possible to assess the quality of linguistic input teachers provide their learners. In the longer term, this study may be used to suggest alternative choices of language use at the teacher's turn in LOTE classes. Such choices might include alternatives in a teacher's follow-up that accommodate more talk moves in the exchange. Students might use the response turn for a reply move and an interrogative or a hedged imperative to another student, so that students retain the turn instead of it necessarily returning to the teacher.

Teachers are more likely to be empowered to manage their own language behaviour and to provide alternatives, when they are informed of pedagogically sound ways of controlling their questioning.

Summary

The role of talk in the second language classroom is complex. The current interest in the role of talk in producing productive classrooms has accentuated awareness of an essential component of communicative second language teaching. The literature indicates that effective communication is likely to occur when teacher and students are engaged in meaningful exchanges, reflective of natural talk in the first language. When students have a natural role as co-communicators in substantial talk, there is scope for intellectual challenge. Although teacher dominance of talk at the third turn has been illustrated by this review of the literature, effects on students' language production have not been widely addressed. Quality of teacher talk and student reaction to focus-on-form feedback and other types of correction are features of talk in

LOTE classrooms that remain under exposed in the literature. An argument has been provided in this chapter for analysing language use at the third turn. Literature outlined supports a role for CA and MCA in analysing teacher talk from transcribed classroom data. The current organisational paradigm throughout the State where the study was conducted was designed to effect positive learning by imposing a teaching environment termed Productive Pedagogies. Consequently, it is the Productive Pedagogies organisation which provides the investigative focus. Thus an association between students' opportunities to generate moves at the third turn and teachers' use of productive pedagogies are essential variables of this investigation. Also a theory of teaching practice that supports methodologies imposed by the Productive Pedagogies framework incorporates CLT approaches in LOTE classrooms and a focus on form in teacher talk as a means of realising students' communicative competence. Opportunities for students to generate moves at the third turn will be explored to identify if they effect target language production and quality of teacher follow-up during the essential teaching exchange.

CHAPTER 3--METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In the preceding literature review, gaps in understanding the role of the third turn in the essential teaching exchange (IRE/F) in a second language teaching context were revealed. There were few descriptions of sequences of exchanges initiated by students with responsive follow-up by teachers. Second, there was little evidence of studies of the third turn as a site for role change and development of talk opportunities or functions beyond classroom management; third, limited attention was given to effects of third turn moves on adjacent language production by students as a sign of learning; and fourth, there was no evidence for the potential of third turn moves which reflect the State imposed framework of using productive pedagogies in helping students realise their communicative language abilities.

Case study design, using qualitative techniques of discourse analysis was chosen as the methodology. It allowed detailed examination of repeated patterns of talk that teachers engage in. Case studies are about individuals and the kinds of behaviours that fashion how human communities function. To that extent, the classroom discourse of two teachers and their students was selected to demonstrate aspects of the whole human endeavour of communicating in the classroom, where language teaching and learning were taking place.

This study aimed to inform the field on the nature of third turns and their pivotal role in demonstrating characteristics of teaching and effects on language use in second language teaching. Although linguistic content of the third turn varies with individual teachers, it is during moves in the third turn (E/F – I) that opportunities for language output by students are either reduced or enhanced by a teacher's choice of options. For instance, the turn taker at the third turn might automatically complete the exchange or alternatively, extend it in a productive way. Current knowledge of language choices made during the third turn and adjacent to third turns constitutes a gap in existing knowledge about the potential role of classroom talk and developing productive pedagogies.

The language that people speak becomes research data only when it is transposed from the activity in which it originally functioned, into the activity in which it is being analysed. Such displacement is often transcription, as in this case study. Discourse Analysis (DA) has been selected as the discipline from which to analyse principles of classroom talk in the LOTE classroom and Conversation Analysis (CA) to identify specific qualities of the exchanges because of its moment-by-moment realisation of meaning from turn to turn. Classroom talk discourse depends for its coherence on the uptake of turns by participants and it is an indication of rapport. Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA), attributed to Hester and Eglin (1997) was chosen also because it provided a framework for identifying roles that members play out

naturally at third turns of talk and it allowed closer analysis of the context of the language lessons. Choices made in selecting dialogue sequences demonstrated the power differential between participants and the effects of their talk at strategic points in the teaching process. This allowed commonsense knowledge about the roles people play in given contexts to be used to realise the significance of the third turn of talk in LOTE classrooms. Principles of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) provided a platform for analysing communicative language competencies. The teachers in the study believed they incorporated their understanding of CLT into classroom talk, so it was inferred throughout that they were helping students to develop communicative language ability. The IRE/F exchange was used as the site for exploring potential for productive pedagogy in the study.

Linguistic and cultural meanings are highly context dependent. So a researcher's control of selecting, presenting and recontextualising verbal data was critical in determining which information was interpreted—therefore, there is researcher meaning within the analysis. Selection of discourse examples has not been by random sampling but by selecting for a purpose, so to that extent, discourse events were unique.

Sequences of exchanges, and moves within those exchanges between teacher and students in Year 10 Japanese classes provided data used to exemplify the concept of the essential teaching exchange in languages classrooms. By definition, the “third turn” in talk is the final part in a short series of three parts that has become recognised as the essential teaching exchange in regular teacher-fronted classroom lessons. The teacher responsible for a lesson initiates the first of each a three-part exchange. The first turn is invariably a question that signals a student response as the second turn. The teacher registers s/he has heard and understood the student response by completing the third part of the exchange, “the third turn”. In conversation analysis studies, the three-part pattern was referred to as IRE (initiation-response-evaluation) by McHoul (1978) and Mehan (1979) and triadic dialogue by Lemke (1990). In discourse studies it has been used extensively (Nassaji and Wells, 2000) as IRF (initiation-response-follow up).

Lemke (2001a, p. 1) recognised that normally features associated with systematic change cannot be known until the end of a study, so a sizeable corpus of verbal data had to be selected to support the analysis. Methodology in this study included accessing classrooms, recording, transcribing the talk that was audible, and then translating the scripts before analysing them as part of the process of gaining and studying talk sequences and content.

Research Design

Six lessons were presented by two teachers. Each teacher provided three Year 10 lessons of 35-40 minutes duration, giving maximum opportunity for the teachers' talk to be a consistent display of their practice. It was considered adequate to identify the usual range of utterances

each teacher regularly made with the selected classes. The focus of analysis was a teacher's turn of talk with an adjacent student's turn. Turn-taking was integral to the study of student language output.

Subjects

The subjects were two teachers of Japanese language, one in each of two Australian regional city high schools. They were chosen on the basis of their interest in, and support of, Japanese language teaching in the city, and for their readiness to provide tangible expression of their commitment to CLT approaches to second language teaching. Their commitment to a CLT approach was established prior to the classroom video sessions from discussion about their perceptions of, and beliefs about, teaching Japanese. Pseudonyms were chosen to protect the teachers' anonymity.

Teacher Benjiro was a male, native speaker of Japanese who regularly visited Japan and was involved in supporting the school's student exchanges in the Osaka prefecture. He gained teaching qualifications both in Japan and in Australia. He was confident in his use of English and deferred comfortably to a native speaker, student or co-teacher, on the few occasions he wanted clarification. He had been teaching Japanese as a LOTE in Queensland since 1982 and was undertaking postgraduate studies in second language teaching during the data collection phase of the study. He claimed to value features of CLT, particularly frequent use of target language. He displayed authentic materials from Japan in the classroom as decoration, and he used discourse charts of lexical rules created for regular use by all teachers of Japanese in the local teaching network. He provided local in-service language workshops to non-native teachers of Japanese. Benjiro was one of three Japanese teachers in the Christian Brothers' College for secondary school boys, one of Queensland's provincial Catholic Diocese schools. The other two teachers were non-native speakers of Japanese.

Teacher Adele was a female, non-native, confident speaker of Japanese who had organised a number of trips to Osaka prefecture in Japan as her students' escort. She gained her teaching qualifications in 1961 and has been a mentor to numerous pre-service teachers throughout her 34-year teaching career in New South Wales and Queensland as an English and LOTE teacher. She has participated in professional development through in-service methodology workshops and has co-conducted intensive language sessions for teachers converting from mainstream classroom to specialised Japanese teaching. At the time of the study she was the only Japanese teacher in the Queensland regional city state high school where the data were collected. Adele claimed to be eclectic in her choice of methods of second language teaching and believed she adopted CLT approaches in the Year 10 classes studied. She used authentic materials from Japan as textual and physical teaching resources.

Students at both schools were in sense complementary participants, not subjects of the study. They had been studying a second language for some years, typically since Year 5, so they were

in their sixth year of instruction in Japanese when the study was conducted. They had chosen Japanese as an elective in Year 10. Not all of the students had decided to specialise in Japanese for their elective study in Years 11 and 12 though the majority expected to do so. Benjiro's class consisted of 15 –17 boys and Adele's class was 9 girls and 1 boy. The students appeared to be conscientious and engaged in their studies of Japanese.

Procedure

Data were collected as raw talk to assist a response to the question of pedagogical effects of the third turn in secondary LOTE teaching exchanges.

Protocols and permissions

The schools were approached through the Head of Department in which LOTE was placed in the curriculum. Permission was gained to video the classes with a view to analysing classroom talk, the focus being on the teacher. Prior to class, introductions were made to the students, and the purpose of the video camera and researcher were made known and students were requested to ignore the intrusion. Offers of video copies were made to the teacher and students were thanked with a small gift for their participation. The teachers were offered the opportunity to discuss any aspects of the videos if they wished.

An information sheet containing an outline of the research plan (Appendix A) was provided for the teacher participants and their consent was gained.

Research instruments for collecting data

Videocassette recordings were made of six lessons of 35-40 minutes. For consistency of replicating the talk that was audible, the same person transcribed and translated the text used as data for the study. Talk uttered and captured on videocassette was to be typical of the teacher's talk in those class sessions on a regular school day.

The teachers were experienced classroom teachers. Although they were not asked to declare their personal attitude to any specific approach to second language teaching, they freely accepted that theirs was a personal application of a CLT approach. They received an information sheet outlining the purposes of the video sessions and explaining that the researcher's focus of attention was on the teacher and the talk generated at the third part. They acknowledged they were comfortable with that focus and accepted the offer of a video copy of the lessons in return for their participation.

The focus of attention in the video screening was the teacher. In particular, interest centred on his/her talk as a reaction to students' responses to the teacher's initiating move at the first turn in the IRE sequence. In order to gain that focus of attention, the camera was trained on the teacher, and showed only profiles or backs of heads of the students. During group work, the camera focus was on the teacher and his/her talk with students.

The class was asked to ignore the video camera and to behave as usual, making contributions in a regular way. It was believed therefore that language items in the text and the teacher's regular allocation of turns would reflect the norm for those classes. Such talk would then be incorporated into the lesson as accurate samples of talk, so by the transcription stage of the methodology, the talk could be genuinely ascribed to the teacher as an accurate reflection of the teacher exchanges in the conduct of that class.

The teachers offered to provide lessons that reflected their CLT approach to second language teaching at Year 10 level. Both teachers were conscious of the curriculum demands on them and the students in terms of what had to be completed within the current term. They made occasional reference to their expectations of Year 10 students, in terms both of what they should know from earlier grades, and looking ahead to the syntax demands of Year 11. They used future achievement goals as motivation for the students to aim for accuracy in the Year 10 lessons.

The lessons chosen occurred at a time which suited Heads of Department, and the overall school program. The timing needed to coincide with examination-free periods in the syllabus, so the teachers were not obliged to meet external formal assessment during the lessons, nor were they preparing students for an upcoming testing period. Any assessment that did occur in the lesson was of the formative kind, generated and monitored by the teacher as part of the objectives of the particular lesson. The data content also had to be collected on days free from scheduled tests or distractions in other classes that might have caused students to be withdrawn from the regular lesson. The video captures were made on a digital camera supported on a tripod and placed in the corner of a classroom in an unobtrusive position. The camera was used to track the teacher and to capture talk generated in his/her presence. The researcher did not interrupt the lesson for any reason, allowing the tape to play till the lessons ended.

The Queensland Schools Curriculum Council had produced resources for a task-based approach to second language teaching. The syllabus, designed across Years 4-10 provided guidelines for assessing levels of achievement. Resource materials consisted of a content-based framework of themes or knowledge fields, prepared modules and units of activities. The four macroskills, as well as vocabulary building and grammar points, were integrated into aims and objectives of each module in order to help students develop communicative competence. When this study was undertaken the participants made limited use of the materials at Year 10 level. The two teachers provided their own resource material for the three lessons, using a communicative approach and neither teacher used the newly developed curriculum resources available on Compact Diskette (CD) from Education Queensland.

Methodologies

Conversation Analysis

The digital images were transferred onto VHS for viewing, transcribing, translating and analysing the talk. The transcriptions were written as true to turn-by-turn exchanges as were audible and presentations were viewed several times. Classroom interactions were observed and only non-linguistic features which were salient to the turns of talk were noted for this study.

Transcriptions accompanied by translation of the talk were typed onto word files, and saved in landscape view showing numbered turns of talk. (Appendices 1-6).

Lessons were documented according to prescriptions developed for the study. These included: numbered turns, transcribed utterances, marked overlaps and pauses with English translations of utterances in subscript showing moves of initiating, responding, evaluating, and giving feedback.

Data Analysis Techniques

Moves were identified and coded in an adaptation of Westgate, Batey, Brownlee and Butler (1985) as shown in Table 1: Coding Interaction Types. The moves provided data about type of interaction in the three-part teaching exchange and major characteristics of classroom talk involving teacher and students.

Table 1: Coding Interaction Types (after Westgate, Batey, Brownlee & Butler, 1985)

Interaction type (move)	Description of move
I	initiated by teacher e.g., asks a question, and is the focus of the next adjacency pair
R	Response by student e.g., answer to the teacher's initiating cue
E or F	Evaluation, e.g., yes, right, wrong Follow-up by teacher e.g. Feedback on student's response
[[SI]]	student asks question
[[TR]]	teacher replies
[[SR]]	student gives feedback to the teacher's feedback
[I]	implied question or non-verbal request for action e.g., raised eyebrow
[R]	implied response by student e.g., head nod or pointing in reply
[E]	understood feedback by gesture rather than words e.g., head shake

Sequences and exchanges

Discourse sequences of talk consisting of all IRE/F exchanges were identified and marked on the transcriptions of the six lessons. (Appendices 1-6) A manual tally was made of language use in IRE/F exchanges and student-initiated exchanges providing comparison of teacher's talk with students' language production. A sample of the documentation is on Charts 2 & 3.

Lesson transcriptions were coded throughout as sequences of exchanges, marked thus [1 to indicate a sequence opening. Sample data 1 reflects codes assigned in the study. Each identified IRE/F exchange through a sequence was numbered, for example '/1' indicated beginning of the first exchange and '//1' indicated end of that exchange, /2 the start of the second exchange and //2 the end of it, and so forth throughout the classroom talk.

The code 'F' was assigned for the follow-up move when the third turn provided feedback to a student's response 'R' beyond an evaluative 'yes' or 'no'. When a further direct question was not produced by the teacher and a student took the next turn, it was understood that the follow-up was also an implied question and assigned '(I)'.

Chart 1 – Sample Data Coding

LINE	SP	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT [1 MARKED SEQUENCE OF EXCHANGE	MOVE	MARKED EXCHANGE: INITIATED/1; FEEDBACK //1 + ACTION NOTES	CLA	PPP
1	T	Atsui desuka?	[1Is it hot?	I	/1 (All S's standing at start of class, as each student answers a question correctly, T tells them to sit)		
2	S1	Atusi	hot	R	Various s's speaking softly throughout (Eng? Jap?), S1 prominent		
3	T	Ha?	Ha	F (I)	//1 /2 T seeks clarification	P-i	4b
4	S1	/Atsui samui/	/hot cold/	R	Various s's speaking softly throughout (Eng? Jap?), S1 prominent		
5	T	Sa Samui desuka?..	Is it co cold?..	(F) I	//2 /3	O-g	1
6	S1?	Iie	no	R	Various s's speaking softly throughout (Eng? Jap?), S1 prominent		1
7	T	Samui desuka?	Is it cold?	(F) I	//3 /4		1
8	S1	Iie	no	R	Various s's speaking softly throughout (Eng? Jap?), S1 prominent		1
9	Ss	Iie [/atsui/	no [/hot/	R			1
10	T	[So sa samui desuKA?.. [atsui=	[So IS IT co cold?..[hot=	(F) I	//4 /5		4a
11	S2	[is it cold.	[is it cold.	R			1
12	T	=desuKA?	=IS it?	I	/5 (continuation of initiation move)		4a
13	S1	Atsui desu	It's hot	R			1
14	T	Atsui desu. Suwatttekudasai....	It's hot. Please sit down....	F (I)	//5 T pointing to S1 to sit down	O-g	12,1 5
15	Ss	Ohh! (exclamations)	Ohh! (exclamations)	R			13
16	T	Kinou..nani o. mimashitaka?./terebi/. nani o mimashitaka?..	[2Yesterday..what. did you see?./TV/. what did you see?..	I	/1		8
17	S2?	Simpsons..wa..	Simpsons..is..	R			4b

Benjiro 18 April 2002 Year 10

I = initiation move (I) implied initiation move F= follow-up move (F) implied follow-up move

Codings for Communicative Competence (CLA) and potential for Productive Pedagogies (PPP) were also assigned. Full access to the coding is available in Tables 2 and 3 (pages 69, 70 and 71).

CLA code was assigned to indicate communicative language ability the teacher was helping students develop. Assigning ‘P’ indicated that pragmatic meaning was being inferred and a specific code ‘p-i’ indicated that an illocutionary implied meaning was being expressed. The teacher’s utterance at the third turn was assigned a code of potential for productive pedagogy (PPP). The PPP code referred to the Education Queensland (2001) framework and in the sample at line 3. Teacher T provided feedback with potential for ‘dialogue’ identified on the Productive Pedagogies framework in category one Intellectual Quality, in the sub-category substantive conversation and assigned coding ‘4b’, referring to the weather. Those features are included on the Data Coding Sample. By line 5, the follow-up is no longer displaying potential for dialogue but for a correctly pronounced adjective describing the weather. The CLA is assigned O-g for grammatical structure, and PPP is assigned ‘1’ for ‘higher order thinking’.

Analysis of moves- LOTE use and student-initiation of moves

Teacher follow-up moves to student responses in the IRF exchanges were classified as (a) evaluation, (b) minimal extension, (c) repair, (d) repetition, (e) recitation, (f) elaboration, (g) extended elaboration and (h) praise.

In LOTE classes, third turns taken by a teacher on occasions prompt students to initiate moves [[SI]] themselves which are generally followed by teacher feedback [[TR]]. Teacher responses to student – initiated moves were grouped as (a) minimal or (b) elaborated. Student-managed uptake moves on those teacher responses were grouped as (a) declaratives or (b) elaboration.

From the exchanges, tallies were made of moves uttered in Japanese, in English and in a mixture of the two languages. The move types were presented in tabular form for analysis with language type noted as ‘J’ for Japanese, ‘E’ for ‘English’ and ‘M’ for ‘Mixed’. Teacher initiated (I) moves were categorised as display or negotiated as were the less frequent student-initiated ([[SI]]) moves. Teacher follow-up (E/F) moves were assessed as evaluation, minimal extension, repair, repetition, elaboration, extended elaboration, recitation (chorusing) and praise. Teacher responses ([[TR]]) to student initiated moves were identified as minimal, elaboration, praise, repetition or repair. Student responses ([[SR]]) to student-initiated moves were considered declarative or elaborating.

A sample of data coding tallies of functions of moves in the language choices is shown below:

Chart 2 – Sample summary of functions by move types within exchanges - Adele

Sqnces	Exch	T-initiated moves						Teacher Follow-up Moves																						
		Display			Negot			Evaluate			M-Ext			Repair			Repeat			Elaborate			Elaborat+			Recitatn			Praise	
11May	Adele	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M		
	Av.																													
1-3	9.7	0	6	0	0	1	0	0	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0
4-7	6.0	2	4	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0

Sqnces 1-7		2	1	0	1	1	0	0	4	2	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	4	0
Sqnces	Exch	St-initiated Moves						St-Managed Response Moves						T-Response Moves																
11May	Adele	Display			Open			Declarative			Elaboration			Minimal			Elaborate			Praise			Rept /Repair							
	Av.	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M		
1-3	9.7	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0		
4-7	6.0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
Sqnces 1-7		2	2	0	0	1	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0		

Chart 3 – Sample summary of functions by move types within exchanges - Benjiro

Sqnces	Exch	T-initiated						Teacher Follow-up																							
18Aprl	Benjir	Display			Negot			Evaluate			M-Ext			Repair			Repeat			Elaborate			Elaborat+			Recitatn			Praise		
	Av.	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M
1-4	16.25	1	3	1	1	2	0	2	1	0	2	1	1	0	9	0	0	4	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-7	11.0	7	2	0	4	0	3	2	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	4	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0
8-10	8.7	8	0	0	6	0	1	2	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	0	7	0	0	0	0
11-14	8.5	6	5	1	5	1	1	7	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	5	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0
15	15.0	1	0	1	0	0	0	8	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Sqnces 1-15		3	4	3	1	2	5	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	8	7	1	5	0	0	0	1	0	4	0	0

Sqnces	Exch	St-initiated						St-Managed						T-Response Moves														
18Aprl	Benji	Display			Open			Declarative			Elaborate			Minimal			Elaborate			Praise			Rept/Repair					
	Av.	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M	E	J	M
1-4	16.25	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5-7	11.0	1	0	1	4	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8-10	8.7	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11-14	8.5	2	2	0	1	0	0	1	7	1	0	0	0	7	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
15	15.0	1	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sqnces 1-15		4	2	1	7	0	0	16	7	1	6	0	0	1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

“Effective” and “less effective” moves at third turns

An assessment was made of features or qualities of talk at third turns taken by teachers. Rules applied to teachers’ moves were based primarily on the immediate effect the teacher’s move had on a student’s language production. That is, a teacher’s move was labelled “effective” when it resulted in language production by a student. A teacher’s move was labelled “less effective” when at the next move, the second of an adjacency pair; a student’s language production was inhibited.

The follow-up component of the third part of the exchange was taken to end when the teacher completed the feedback part of the third turn. Analysis of the exchange was made primarily on the evaluation or feedback and took account of the next initiating utterance ‘I’ particularly when it was an implied component of the feedback. Coding was made of the types of feedback provided, and if there was an implied or direct additional initiating ‘I’ move at the third turn.

Figure 5 in Chapter 4 reports a summary of findings of aggregated data.

Intensive analysis of question types and associated follow-up

Types of questions (display, open negotiation and personal negotiation), and types of follow-up (classified as a CLA type, and category of productive pedagogy) were identified from the transcriptions for all IRE/F exchanges and marked on excel tally sheets beside each exchange number. Tallies were made of teacher-initiated moves as “display”, “negotiation-personal” and “negotiation-open” types.

Display questions for which teacher was ‘primary knower’ were those that held retrospective reference to previously taught material, or prospective relevance to an answer the teacher was expecting. Negotiation questions, both personal and open, were those in which teacher was a ‘secondary knower’, in which s/he did not pre-determine the student’s response. Personal negotiation required an individual preference response. Open negotiation questions opened up responses to the whole class. Follow-up moves were identified as realising Communicative Language Ability and as inferring potential for productive pedagogy, by reading the assigned coding marked on the transcriptions in earlier analysis of move types.

Data on question types provided instances which were matched with teacher follow-up across:

- (a) four categories of inferred potential for productive pedagogies: “Intellectual Quality”, “Connectedness”, “Supportive Classroom Environment” and “Recognition of Difference” and
- (b) three categories of realised support to students’ development of communicative language ability: Organisational Competence, Pragmatic Competence and Strategic Competence.

Formulae providing calculations on excel sheets were complex and amounted to several pages for each of the six lessons. A sample of tallies and formulae for Adele’s lesson March 7 is provided in Appendix 7. The sample is a template for calculating data for all six lessons in the study. It shows electronic calculations made to provide relevant pie graphs of percentages of potential for productive pedagogy from each of three question types, and percentages of realisation of supporting communicative language ability. Figures 10-14 in Chapter 4 provide graphic representation of findings relating question type to follow-up moves.

Communicative Competence

At the third turn an assessment was made of the communicative language ability (CLA) the teacher was perceived to be helping students develop. CLA was estimated by matching teacher talk with any of the four competencies defined by Bachman (1990, pp. 84-103). A judgement was made that the teacher’s talk aimed to provide a communicative environment and such an approach was conducive to communicative language teaching (Mangubhai et al., 2000). A

column on the transcription table was labelled “CLA”, representing communicative language ability identified as: organisational competence (O); pragmatic competence (P); and strategic competence (Str). The Bachman (1990) sub-categories included in Table 2 show coding assigned to moves with a short definition of associated language elements and cognitive skills. Assigned coding refers to items in the talk that indicated how a teacher might realise helping to develop components of a student’s communicative language ability. For example, when a teacher spelled out a word for clarification, that move would be recognised as supporting organisational competence, in the category grammatical (O-g), specifically graphology and coded (O-g-g). When a teacher engaged students in their sporting interests, the move was recognised as supporting pragmatic competence (P), in the category illocutionary (P-i), specifically ideational functions (P-i-i) in the context of the lesson.

Table 2: Coding of Communicative Language Ability (CLA) components (after Bachman, 1990)

Organisational Competence (O)	Grammatical (O-g)	Vocabulary (O-g-v) Morphology (O-g-m) Syntax (O-g-s) Phonology (O-g-p) Graphology (O-g-g)	<u>Realised in this study as:</u> Words, phrases Word forms Sentential level Sounds Script
Organisational Competence (O)	Textual (O-t)	Cohesion (O-t-c) Rhetorical O-t-r)	<u>Realised in this study as:</u> Ties, referents allowing coherence Genres and structure
Pragmatic Competence (P)	Illocutionary (P-i)	Ideational functions (P-i-i) Manipulative functions (P-i-m) Heuristic functions (P-i-h) Imaginative functions (P-i-im)	<u>Realised in this study as:</u> Expression of knowledge & feelings; Instrumental, regulatory, interpersonal relationships; Problem-solving & memorization; Creativity, story telling
Pragmatic Competence (P)	Sociolinguistic (P-s)	Sensitive to dialect or variety (P-s-d) Sensitivity to register (P-s-r) Sensitivity to naturalness (P-s-n) Cultural references (P-s-c) Figures of Speech (P-s-f)	<u>Realised in this study as:</u> Awareness of need to adapt to linguistic difference Appropriate to social level Responsiveness to the learner’s first & target language cultures; Knowledge of extended meaning; Referential meanings and clichés
Strategic Competence (S)	Strategic (Str)	Compensatory strategies: assessing (str-ass) planning (str-plan) executing (str-exec)	<u>Realised in this study as:</u> Assessing how to achieve a goal Formulating action Delivering appropriately

Researcher inference was validated by triangulation method with two other researchers. Estimation was made of the type of communicative competence each teacher was assisting students to develop on the basis of language choice of third turn moves. Using Conversation Analysis methodology, turns of talk revealed intended meanings in the interaction between participants. Follow-up talk provided during a third turn was identified as providing feedback to students of the teachers’ understanding in that given moment. Adjacency pairs were to be

seen as opportunities to identify talk with communication and therefore as ways teachers were helping students to develop communicative language ability.

Potential for Pedagogies

A model was used to indicate potential for productive pedagogy. Developed by the Curriculum Implementation Unit from New Basics Project (2001) taken from the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS), the productive pedagogies became the Curriculum Framework for Education Queensland Schools Years 1-10. It is a framework intended for application across subject disciplines, and is used here in a LOTE context. It enabled classification of a teacher’s behaviour through language use in the third turn as potential for more productive use of that pivotal point in the teacher’s interaction with students. Assigning codes to moves inferred to carry potential for productive pedagogy (PPP) was marked on the transcriptions as in Table 3. For example when a teacher drew on material known to the students, based on previous experience, the move was coded PP8 inferring there was potential for the teacher to develop productive pedagogy 8 “background knowledge”. When a teacher maintained discourse with a student, the move was coded “4b”. An inference was made that potential was evident to the researcher for the teacher to develop productive pedagogy 4b “substantive conversation – dialogue”. The concept ‘potential’ was introduced because the productive pedagogy was not substantively evident in the teacher’s choice of talk, yet it could have been realised in that moment. This segment of methodology in the study focussed on moves in the third turn of the teaching exchange (IRE/F) for productive pedagogy.

Table 3: Coding of Productive Pedagogies*, adapted from ‘A Guide to Productive Pedagogies’ (New Basics Project 2001) Education Queensland 2001 as identified by Hayes et al. (2000) in the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study

Intellectual quality*	Connectedness*	Supportive classroom environment*	Recognition of difference*
1. Higher order thinking (PP1)	7. Knowledge Integration (PP7)	11. Student Control (direction) (PP11)	16. Cultural Knowledges (PP16)
2. Deep Knowledge (PP2)	8. Background Knowledge (PP8)	12. Social Support (PP12)	17. Inclusivity (PP17)
3. Deep Understanding (PP3)	9. Connectedness to the world (PP9)	13. Engagement (PP13)	18. Narrative (PP18)
4. Substantive Conversation (PP4) a. intellectual substance b. dialogue c. logical extension & synthesis d. sustained exchange	10. Problem-Based Curriculum (PP10)	14. Explicit Criteria (PP14)	19. Group Identity (PP19)
5. Knowledge problematic (PP5)		15. Self-Regulation (PP15)	20. Citizenship (PP20)
6. Metalanguage (PP6)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numbers 1-20 are the behaviour dimensions of the 20 Productive Pedagogies. Codes are used throughout to indicate potential in the teacher’s talk for the numbered productive pedagogy; e.g., (PP1—potential for higher order thinking). • In this analysis, the term “metalanguage” (PP6) was used as any reference by teacher or student to grammatical features and syntax, though they may have omitted explicit grammatical terminology. <p>Productive pedagogy academic engagement (PP13) was an ongoing feature of the classroom</p>			

exchanges. It was so prevalent that it was not presented specifically on the charts.

Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA)

The researcher's 'hearing' of relational roles of the teacher and of students was based on an illocutionary understanding of utterances embedded in the transcribed verbal data. 'Hearing' referred to the researcher's uptake of understanding an event as it was presented. Categories of teacher and student were the membership categories in this analysis. Single membership categorization and standardised relational pairs from Membership Categorisation Analysis (MCA) provided another framework in CA for understanding interactions that took place during the classroom talk.

Standardised Relational Pairs

Sacks (1992) devised tools to explain interactions among standardised relational pairs (SRPs). Pairs of categories were linked together in standardised routine ways and they functioned by rules known as the *economy rule*, *consistency rule*, *duplicative organisation*, and *category-bound activities*. SRPs are generally identified by socially expected adjacency pairs governed by the category of persons who are involved in talking together.

Typically when a teacher spoke, the roles of adult and LOTE teacher of Japanese were heard first, followed by hearing the message was from a female native English-speaking person or from a male native Japanese-speaking person. When students spoke, they were heard in relation to the teacher, as learners of Japanese and students of the teacher. When they were to be heard as adolescent girls or adolescent boys in the classroom in a state high school or Christian Brothers' College, as potential visitors to Japan or as hosts to visiting Japanese students, or as obedient or disobedient, compliant or non-compliant minors in the social power relations with the adult, then that was the hearing reported.

Instances of "fat" (Garfinkel, 1967) moments in talk were identified as warranting finer analysis where the SRP of teacher and student was inverted, and student took a role as teacher and teacher as student.

Economy rule

The economy rule is used to focus on what is going on in an interaction, by defining the category of interactants in a single category according to the role they are performing at the time. A teacher is "heard" as being in the category of teacher, not in another category such as doctor or shop assistant, despite the possibility that informality at times may indicate the category of confidante or friend.

Consistency rule

There is consistency also in the way persons interact with each other in the given setting that lends credibility to particular interaction that is displayed within exchanges.

Duplicative rule

Interlocutors can get into the habit of being duplicative about their talk. There is a sense that the speaker is aligning with the listener. It is a sign of mutual production that the schema of context is closely shared and more formal talk is deemed redundant by the participants. So they tend to speak in a more fragmented way, confident that their listeners' inferences are synonymous with their understanding. Assumptions of this kind can interfere with clear negotiation of meaning when interlocutors believe they have an implicit understanding of the other person and issues may remain unresolved or problematic.

Category and predicates and collection provide the formal means by which a reader can assemble for each occasion, a locally ordered, relationally configured and reflexively constituted sense from the words used in classroom episodes.

Categories and predicates

Hester and Eglin (1997, p. 28) used MCA based on "categorial order in talk". A reflexive constitution of an MC's category predicates the meaning of a particular categorisation, such that a description of a term comes to be used for the category it belongs to. The category to which an activity is bound has a special relevance for identifying the doer and it permits inferences about that person's identity, and to characteristics of normative behaviour in that category (Hester & Eglin, 1997; Silverman, 1993).

Terms, such as co-selected descriptions, are heard as a predicate of a category. Hester and Eglin (1997) demonstrated from their research that when "thief" is heard, the concept co-selected is "pick up anything". Hearably then, that is what the category means, and how it is ordered. A thief is likely to steal or pick up whatever is of interest. In relation to classroom settings, the command "up you get" is co-selected with "we'll revise vocabulary" and "you'll stand until you get a turn and give the correct answer". So, co-selected descriptions follow a consistency rule corollary, or hearer's maxim. That is, if consecutive categorisations can be heard as belonging to the same device or collection, then they should be heard that way. There is a presumed consistency between consecutive categorisations. Orderly features of the indexical expression "up you get" are reflexively constituted in situ. The meaning of the category and hence the collection to which it belongs are context embedded and context constitutive. The categorial order so produced as MC can be heard to belong to the collection "vocabulary revision" and so it is a locally organised, relationally configured, reflexively constituted phenomenon.

Reference to understandings that are shared between teacher and students are not necessarily comprehensible to an uninitiated observer. MC is context constitutive, for example when a teacher uses a metaphor such as "shape of an umbrella being put up in an electric storm" to

describe the concept of weather when teaching students to write Japanese hiragana. Contextual resources needed to make sense of the categorisation in the selected context include category membership of the subject (the weather), the setting (Year 10 Japanese lesson), category membership of participants (teacher and students) and the immediate context of the co-selected descriptions (hiragana calligraphy). Together with the categorisation in question, these stand in a reflexively constitutive relationship or configuration. They comprise a “category-in-context” and an outsider is not in a membership category to participate.

Collections

Collections consisted of groups of categories. The membership categories identified in classroom lessons were typically the standardised relational pair (SRP) of teacher and students. These two collections go together naturally in a common sense way after they have been together for two or three weeks. Patterns of exchange that were tolerated by a teacher and members of the Year 10 LOTE class were soon learned in that context, given there was not a significant language barrier to communication. Within the classroom, relevant categories were teacher and students. In one case in the study, the collection consisted of a male teacher and a Year 10 class of boys, in the other collection, a female teacher and a Year 10 class predominantly of girls.

In responding to a teacher’s question or statement, students reflected, sometimes spontaneously, on the boundaries that had been placed on the category. Cooperative communication was the anticipated outcome, unless the teacher and student drew from different collections in their responses to each other. Embarrassed laughter, muffled reactions, surprised utterances would be indicators of the relevance of collections in membership categorization analysis.

Normally when alignment does not occur, and an interactant draws from an alternative collection, hearers tend to stigmatise the respondent and no longer hear him/her in the familiar context. Saussure (1974, as cited in Silverman, 1993) named such polarisation “paradigmatic opposition”. That kind of hearing is an intrinsic part of stereotyping and often that impression becomes an opposing characterization which is difficult to alter. In contrast, “syntagmatic relations” would occur when hearers are aligned with the respondent’s collections of characteristics being discussed. In such instances, a respondent’s turn is likely to continue until s/he chooses to close.

Through analysis of the SRP comprising teacher and students, the relevantly predicated activity in this study was to talk in Japanese. The talk had to incorporate students’ understanding of the content of the lesson and how it fitted into the sequential development of their Japanese language skills within the syllabus to Year 11. The category predicates of teacher and students centred on the collection of tasks or activities or practices that made up participating to learn according to the shared rules of etiquette and syllabus content to do what the teacher had planned.

Validation

Internal validity was achieved through three-way (Wiersma, 1995, p. 264) assessment of coding of the data in searching for “convergence of the information on a common finding or concept”. Firstly, turns were identified as conforming to an IRE/F pattern; then at each third turn one of 20 productive pedagogies was estimated to be available in the teacher’s talk to be developed. The feedback move was classified as holding potential for the identified productive pedagogy (Education Queensland 2001). Further, the type of communicative language ability aimed at by the teacher needed to be confirmed also by triangulation.

A 10% sample of exchanges focussing on third turns was subjected to checks of reliability with two academic colleagues, using Brophy and Evertson’s (1973) formula. Classification of evaluative and feedback turns, potential of those turns for productive pedagogies and for realising student development of communicative language ability were managed by this procedure. Application of that formula resulted in reliability figures of not less than 92% for evaluative/feedback turn type, and not less than 88% for productive pedagogies, and not less than 80% for assisting in developing communicative competence. These figures were taken as indicating that a very satisfactory level of coding reliability had been achieved.

Introduction

Information provided to participants is found in Appendix A.

In this chapter is an analysis of data collected from transcriptions of the classroom exchanges over six lessons. It is arranged in five parts.

First, transcriptions of spoken text with English translation were compiled and presented (Appendices 1-6). Sequences of talk during the six lessons conducted by Teacher Adele and Teacher Benjiro were identified and labeled on the transcripts, marking beginning and end of each IRE/F exchange. Initiation moves, student responses and teacher follow-up during IRE/F were coded as were student-initiated moves with follow-up responses by teachers and students. Coding of interactions between teacher and students was provided in Table 1 - Coding Interaction Types (Chapter 3).

Second, tallies of teacher-initiated exchanges, showing features of moves as follow-up, and tallies of student-initiated exchanges with subsequent teacher and student responses with comparison of moves delivered in the target language and in English were displayed in Figures 1-7. An unexpected finding emerged from the data. Student participation in classroom discourse was found to be affected by certain categories of teacher follow-up in the third turn. Six types of feedback in follow-up moves in the essential IRE/F teaching exchange were identified as being conducive to students generating talk. Samples of talk in those interactions were provided as *Types a-f* and contrasted with less effective feedback moves *Types g-h*.

Third, inferences were made of teachers' follow-up moves at third turns as providing support for students to develop their communicative language ability. The moves were coded and represented in columns alongside transcriptions of talk. Teachers' support of students in helping them develop Communicative Language Ability (CLA) was coded according type of competency inferred by teacher's moves: Organisational (Org), Pragmatic (Prag) and Strategic (Str). Sub-categories of those competencies were listed according to Bachman (1990) in Table 2 (Chapter 3). Follow-up moves were graphically represented in Figures 8-11 as types of CLA feedback inferred as being realized in response to the teachers.

Teachers' third turn moves were evaluated also in terms of a framework of Productive Pedagogies (Education Queensland 2001). An inference was made about moves in third turns, that teacher's revealed potential for at least one productive pedagogy in the feedback, but the pedagogy often remained under-developed and unrealised. Moves at the third turn were classified as holding potential as a Productive Pedagogy and coded PP. Coding of the twenty productive pedagogies in four broad categories: Intellectual Quality, Connectedness, Supportive Classroom Environment and Recognition of Difference was provided in Table 3 (Chapter 3).

Figures 12- 17 show tallies of potential Productive Pedagogies in the teachers' follow up moves initiated by display questions and by two types of negotiation questions (personal and elaborated).

Samples of teacher and student talk are given as instances of effects of the third turn on second language teaching. They demonstrated talk used by teachers in helping students develop their communicative language ability and the samples indicated potential for productive pedagogy in teachers' moment-to-moment classroom talk with students.

Fourth, three types of teachers' questions, identified as display, personal negotiation and elaborated negotiation were understood to have prompted two categories of third-turn follow-up: (i) support to student's development of communicative competence, and (ii) potential for developing at least one productive pedagogy. Data derived from analysis of question types was used to compare question type with follow-up moves inferred to realize a teacher's development of communicative language ability in students. Further, question types that generated follow-up indicating potential for productive pedagogies were compared. Comparisons were illustrated in Figures 10-20.

Fifth, membership categorization analysis (MCA) was applied to the roles of teachers and students in moves at the third turn in the essential teaching IRE/F exchange. The third turn provided a focal point for negotiation of roles using standardized relational pairs (SRPs) in the institutional setting provided by the two foreign language classrooms in the study.

Context of Classroom Talk

Talk in a classroom is a complex phenomenon combining culture and attitudes which pervade the learning environment. Conversation Analysis tools were used to bring transcriptions from whole LOTE lessons of talk in the classroom context into focus. It was the means of noticing significance of talk in teacher - student interactions at third turns through adjacency pairs. The analyses were underpinned by an understanding that teachers and students interact with each other according to rules they share by being members of their participant category in that relationship.

Episodes of talk presented were provided by two teachers of Year 10 Japanese in two schools in a regional Queensland city. The extracts selected were exemplars of the types of talk at third turns which affected talk students were subsequently inclined to produce. Students were members of a Year 10 class studying the Japanese language within the Queensland curriculum and they were seen to identify in similar yet individual ways as students of the teachers in the study. Teachers Adele and Benjiro acknowledged they applied a personal understanding of communicative language teaching (Littlewood, 1984) and their talk indicated that they also tried to help students develop linguistic competences. They demonstrated behaviours associated with

advancing the productive pedagogies ideology and practices that are promoted by Education Queensland for effective teaching in schools to the extent that the data revealed.

Conversation Analysis and the Classroom

Assessment was made of classroom talk based on the transcriptions documented as (1-6). Talk was coded as shown in Table 1: Coded Interaction Types, adapted from Westgate, Batey, Brownlee and Butler (1985, p. 271). The code designated moves initiated, responded to, evaluated and given feedback.

In the moment of moves within a third turn in the IRE/F exchange, teacher feedback was realised as the teacher's contribution to focussed talk (Wells, 1993). The feedback move was taken to end when the teacher completed the feedback component of that turn. The 'F' move and 'E' moves influence a teacher's next move, even within the third turn. Often the teacher's feedback move was immediately followed by a new initiating move (I) before the third turn was completed. The nature of delivery and content of teacher feedback influences the question the teacher poses in that turn, so the next initiating move is likely to reflect the thinking involved in the composition and delivery of feedback.

Although teacher (I) moves have been kept separate from evaluative (E) moves and feedback (F) moves in the follow-up in tallying follow-up that next initiating question has not been ignored.

A teacher was considered to "hear" a student initiation when s/he allowed the talk to proceed. A student could "take the floor" by being allowed to continue his/her initiating utterance.

Teacher-Student Turn Taking

It was expected that analysis of classroom talk would show that teachers take a higher proportion of turns of talk than students. Studies of secondary classrooms had shown triadic dialogue pattern with 70% of moves being taken by teachers (Wells, 1999, p. 167). However, data in the current study indicated only 39% of the moves were taken by Teacher Adele and 47% taken by Teacher Benjiro across their three lessons. Students took more turns in these second languages classes than is the norm in mainstream classes.

Use of Japanese language in exchanges

In creating a context for the lessons, teachers of CLT approaches tend to use the target language as much as possible. They also expect students to produce their own utterances in the target language. At the third turn, there are usually two moves. One provides feedback as an evaluation or elaboration of a student's response, the other starts the next exchange. In the series of exchanges until the sequence is completed and a new sequence begun, teachers typically take

the first turn in making an initiating move, and after a student has provided a response at the second turn, they take the third turn in the exchange as an identifiable move.

The third turn content therefore gave an indication of language use through the lessons as the teacher gave an evaluative move or a feedback move and then initiated the next exchange. It was also at that third turn that students on occasions found a transitionally-relevant place to initiate a move themselves.

The following charts were produced to show information graphically about the type of move, who made it and language used. The two teachers displayed different patterns of target language use, though both used Japanese extensively. The number of initiation and follow-up moves generated in Japanese and English in the exchanges are presented in the following figures.

Figure 1 shows the number of initiating and evaluative / feedback moves produced in Japanese by Adele (Teacher A) and Benjiro (Teacher B) and students in Adele’s classes (Students A) and students in Benjiro’s classes (Students B). Figure 2 shows the number of initiating and follow-up moves in English generated in the lessons. Adele produced many more turns in Japanese than in English (392:95) but her students made more initiation and follow-up moves in English than in Japanese (90:69). By contrast, Benjiro took the greatest proportion of all moves in both Japanese and English and his students used both languages evenly in turns they generated themselves [[SI]] and in follow-up moves [[SR]] to those initiations.

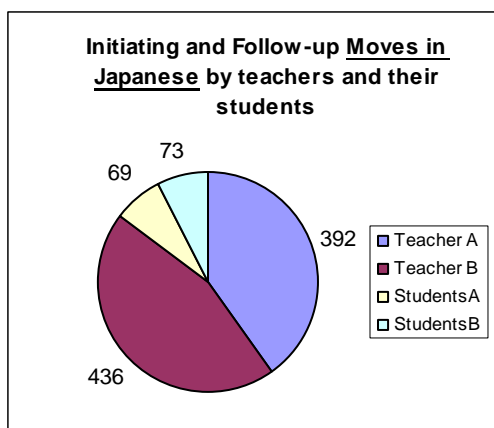


Figure 1 – Moves in Japanese produced by the teachers and their students

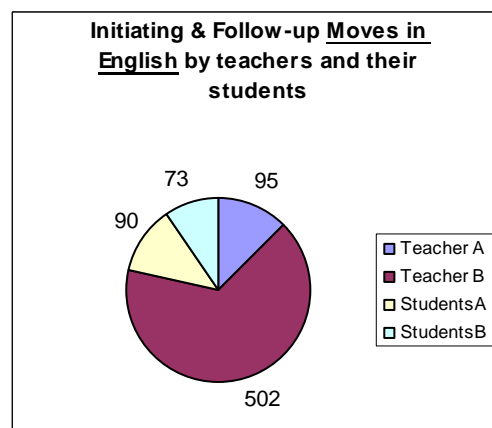


Figure 2 – Moves in English produced by the teachers and their students

Figure 3 shows percentage of moves made in Japanese and English. The teachers and students tended to complete a move in either Japanese or in English almost 90% of the time rather than mixing the two languages. Adele (TA) initiated exchanges and gave follow-up more often in Japanese than in English (392 of 487: 71%) whereas Benjiro (TB) made 436 of 738 (42%) of his moves in Japanese. Students in the teachers' classes showed a slightly contrasting pattern; Students B initiated the same number of moves (73:73) in Japanese as English (46%) with the remaining moves in a mixture of Japanese and English. Students A produced 42% of their initiating moves in Japanese and 4% a mixture of Japanese and English. Benjiro produced many more moves in both languages than any other member of category teacher or student and his Students B appeared closely aligned with him in the proportion of moves they made in the two languages, except that Benjiro made more moves in English. The proportion of moves in Japanese by Adele was not as closely aligned with her students' use of the target language in initiating or follow-up moves; her students generated slightly more moves in English than Japanese whereas she completed over 70% of her moves in Japanese and only 15 % in English. These numbers indicate that Adele spoke Japanese most of the time whereas Benjiro balanced his use of English and Japanese, favouring English slightly more often.

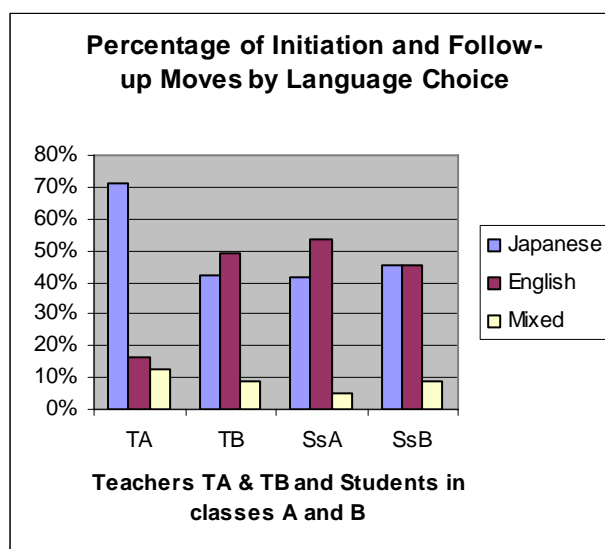


Figure 3 – Language used in initiation and follow-up moves

Both teachers produced Japanese readily, as they selected between Japanese and English in exchanges with students. This suggests their choice of Japanese for initiation and feedback moves was not problematic.

Display questions in the initiating move

Display questions were used for eliciting answers from students when the teacher knew that s/he was searching out one correct answer. The teacher was then in the position of primary knower in that exchange with an individual student, although other category members may also have known the answer the teacher was seeking.

In the following examples of transcribed text, answers to the questions were known. These were display questions. Teachers Adele and Benjiro were using the questions for display purposes. This encouraged students to use Japanese to make predictable and known utterances on known content. In Illustration 1 (a) at line 161, Adele (T) asked for repetition of the statement “Chips please”. Similarly in Illustration 1 (b) at line 124, Benjiro (T) knew it was hot and in Illustration 1 (c) in line 133 he asked students to display their ability to repeat the word “cold”.

Illustration 1 (a)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
161	T	Say you want some chips so what do you say?...a ah ah. What would you say?. Chips. o. kudsai. /you try/	Say you want some chips so what do you say?...a ah ah. What would you say?. Chips. please. /you try/	I

Adele, March 7

Illustration 1 (b)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
124	T	Atsui desuka?	is it hot?	I

Benjiro, April 18

Illustration 1 (c)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
133	T	Ah ja..repeat o shitekudasai. Samui	Ah so..please repeat. Cold	I

Benjiro, April 18

Teachers’ display questions often held retrospective references that were relevant to a current response, or prospective relevance to something ahead. Display questions with retrospective relevance called on students to recall previous answers or knowledge in order to complete the response that the teacher was anticipating. Display questions were often high on retrospectivity and low on prospectivity.

In Illustration 2, S1 used a given noun “Gakkou” at turn 25 and guessed the verb form at turn 27. As primary knower of correct language forms, teacher Benjiro congratulated student S1 on providing the preferred utterance as turn 28 indicated. Where the teacher holds the key to correct and incorrect responses s/he is known as the primary knower.

Illustration 2

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
23	T	Right. Ja...this time.. Ok . no must form. just say the plain form. Yes?...	Right. well...this time.. Ok . no must form. just say the plain form.// Yes?...	F I
24	S’s	(laugh)	(laugh)	R
25	S1	Gakkou...wa..	school....(particle)..	R
26	T	Gakkou...	School...	F (I)
27	S1	Demasu	Leave	R
28	T	Demasu....deru. yes. very good.	leave...leave (plain form of verb). Yes. very good. //.	F

Benjiro, May 2

In Illustration 3, at turn 206 the teacher appeared to accept the student's answer as fitting within a range of possible answers by evaluating at the third turn with 'yes'. But instead of building on the student's response by elaborating or explaining, he showed his question was a display question type by asking another question to start another exchange. He must have had a different answer in mind, perhaps in relation to the rule, rather than the difference between 'masu' form and 'plain' form for which Student S8 provided a response retrospectively at turn 205. That response was limited in the teacher's view and the teacher made the student aware of his lack of complete success by prospective demands he shifted to in turn 206. The move at turn 206 with another display question signalled that another guess was required by the student if it was to match the teacher's intended answer.

Illustration 3

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
204	T	Kikune. Ok.. Would you please tell me the rule. what's the difference between masu form and the plain form. Yes?	Listen right. Ok.. Would you please tell me the rule. what's the difference between masu form and the plain form. Yes?	I
205	S8	Plain form's in the dictionary. Masu form's what we say.	Plain form's in the dictionary. 'Masu' (polite ending of verb) form's what we say.	R
206	T	Yes. How can you. find us the plain form from masu form.	Yes. How can you. find us the plain form from 'masu' form.	E I

Benjiro, June 6

Negotiation questions in the initiating move

In contrast to display questions, negotiation questions in initiating moves were those with potential as information-seeking questions for which the teacher did not hold a specific correct answer on personal opinions and open negotiation questions. Since such questions were transactional in nature, the teacher would realise the role of secondary knower, and behave as one seeking from a student a meaningful answer that was as yet unknown to the teacher. Although the teacher might have used the answer in a range of ways, the potential of the question was enquiry. There was a genuine purpose in asking the question, either to gain information or to engage in social interaction.

Illustration 4 (a) had the teacher asking negotiating questions, the answers to which were open to personal response. In line 155 Adele (T) did not know if the student liked hamburgers, and in Illustration 4 (b) in line 27, Benjiro (T) did not know what the student had watched on television. Both teachers were seeking information.

Illustration 4 (a)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
155	T	hambaagaa ga sukidesuka?	do you like hamburgers?	I

Adele, March 7

Illustration 4 (b)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
------	------	------------------	-------------	------

27	T	Nani o mimashitaka?	What did you see?	I
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Benjiro, April 18

The teachers' initiating moves or questions showed slightly more negotiation type than display type. Benjiro provided 54% (222 initiating moves as negotiation and 192 display questions and moves) compared with Adele's 51% (100 negotiation and 95 display questions). Both teachers provided opportunities for negotiation on almost as many occasions as they asked display questions, thus providing students with opportunities to communicate information almost half of the time.

Figure 4 provides a graphic representation of the proportion of initiating moves which were classified as display questions or statements, compared with negotiating questions or statements.

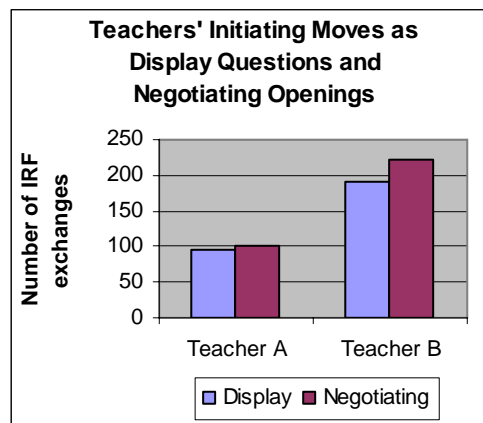


Figure 4 – Comparison of teachers' use of display and negotiating moves in the initiating position

Given the similarity in the number of negotiation as for display questioning openings, the talk exchanges between teacher and students that became significant were those that were less predictable.

These included first, types of uptake at the third turn and second, students' reactions to uptake moves that led to student-initiating moves.

Uptake at the third turn

There were three broad types of uptake moves at the third turn prior to the next initiating move. Figure 5 shows the distribution of those moves by the two teachers. The first uptake move was evaluation (E), equivalent to a short move such as "yes", "no", "wrong" or minimal extension equivalent to "yes, that's right", "no, not that one". A second type of uptake provided a feedback move, such as repetition or repair involving pronunciation or syntax of a student's utterance in terms, or reciting for rehearsal in choral work. A third uptake provided feedback types of varying content and quality such as elaboration, exemplification, and other explanation.

When they provided a third turn, both teachers generated evaluative or minimal extension moves 50% of the time. Teacher Benjiro provided the second uptake type in 32% of those moves and elaboration in 14.5% of them. Teacher Adele was more inclined to the third type of

uptake, elaboration in 38% of the moves ahead of type 2, repeating and repairing student responses.

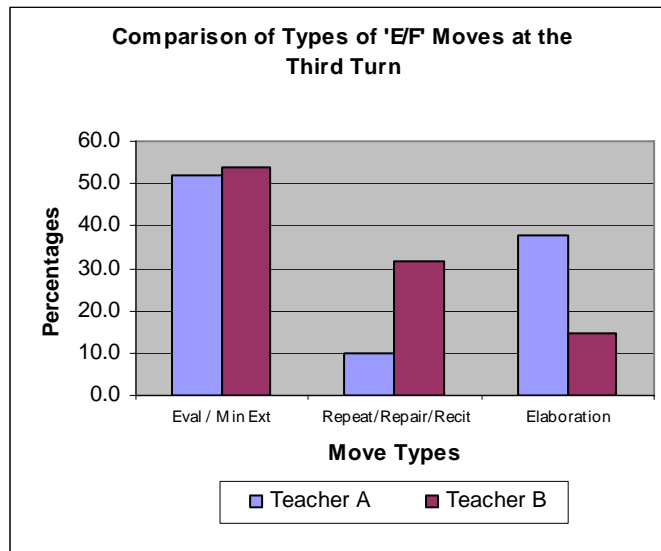


Figure 5 – Types of Uptake Moves

Tallies of feedback types to student responses in either Japanese or English throughout the six lessons were made, Figure 5a and included language as in Sample 4 text. The two teachers were generally more likely to provide the feedback in Japanese as English across the three feedback forms: Evaluation and Minimal extension, Repeat/repair/recite and Elaboration. Elaboration of responses was available from both teachers in Japanese as were moves providing evaluation and minimal extension.

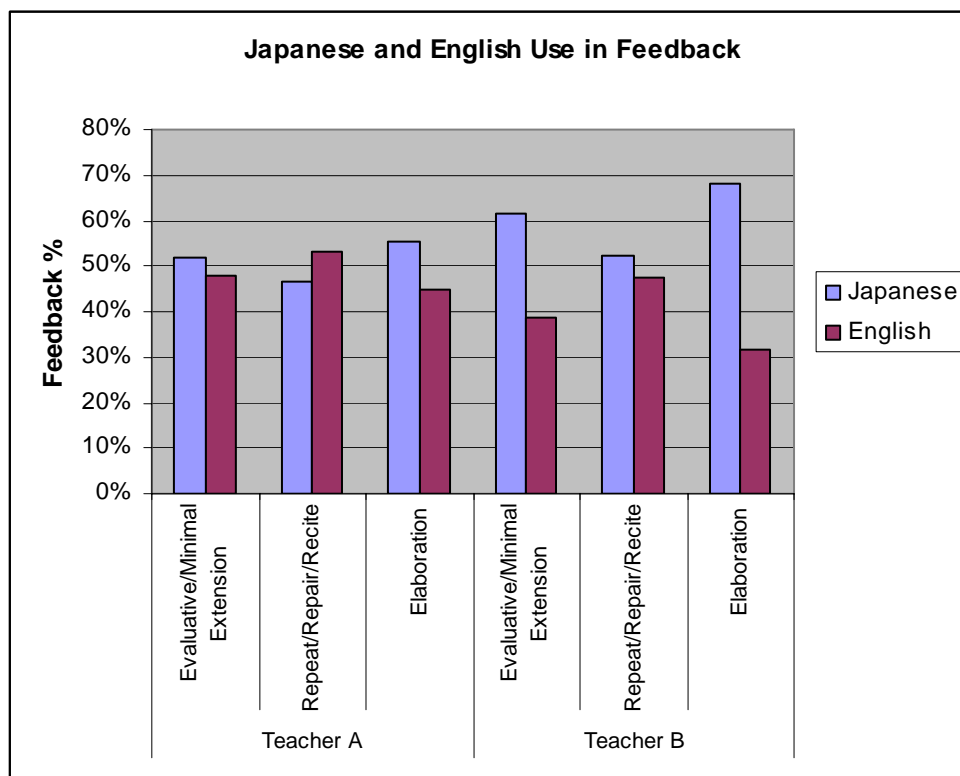


Figure 5 (a) – Language Use by Teachers in Feedback Moves

Second, a pattern emerged in the data that showed an adjacency pairs relationship between type of uptake provided by the teachers in the third turn, and the students' opportunity to initiate a next move by way of the adjacency pair.

Student-initiated moves following the third turn

The study showed that the opportunity for students to initiate talk varied across lessons and with the style of teaching. ***Third turns were deemed effective when students took the next turn and generated interaction.*** Over six lessons, 312 moves were identified and analysed as student-initiating moves. Invariably the teachers allowed the student-initiation to proceed interrupting the traditional IRF exchange through the third turn as student question or declarative.

Four categories of student-initiated moves were identified as:

(i) starting a new sequence of exchanges; (ii) following adjacent elaborating feedback; (iii) following minimal extension; (iv) following evaluation.

Most student-initiated moves occurred in the first category, with 128 moves identified as starting a new sequence of exchanges. A second category, identified in 106 instances, showed that students initiated moves following adjacent feedback of exemplification, elaboration, repair or praise from their teachers. A third category was identified in 67 moves, following minimal extension in the adjacent feedback from the teacher. The final category was identified in the fewest student-initiated moves, 11, following evaluative adjacent moves by the teacher.

The results showed that students initiated talk most often by starting off a new sequence of talk. Otherwise, a pre-cursor to students initiating moves was the type of uptake move the teacher provided at the third turn. Elaboration in some form at the third part of the IRF provided many more opportunities than did simple evaluative moves “yes”, “no”, “right”, “wrong” in an IRE. A minimal extension move, such as “pasta. Hai pasta...iidesune”, offered a frequency of opportunities for student-initiating moves between the two extremes of elaboration and evaluation.

Results illustrated in Figures 6 and 7 show comparable patterns for Teacher Adele and Teacher Benjiro, with the exception that in Benjiro's classes, students were more likely to initiate a move after Benjiro gave some elaborative feedback than they were to initiate a move to start a new sequence of talk. With both teachers, “evaluative” moves at the third turn did not encourage students to generate an utterance as an initiating move.

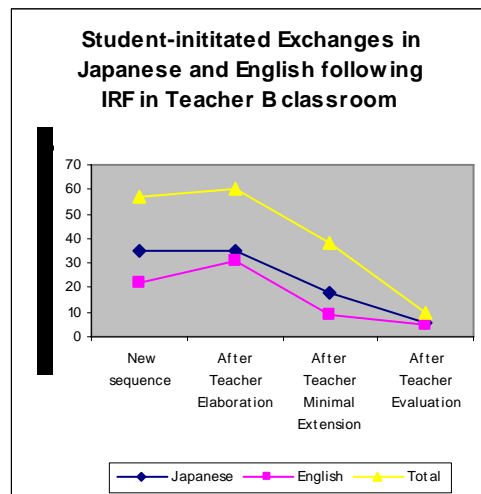
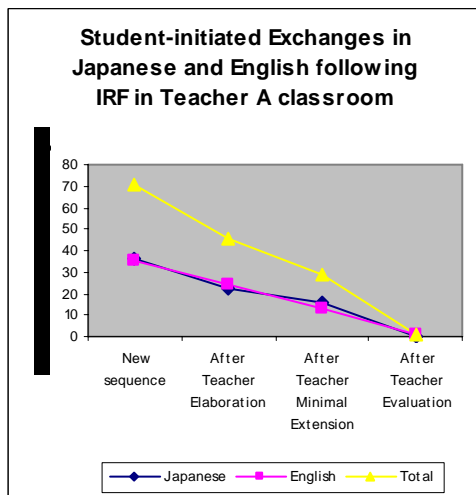


Figure 6 – Student-initiating moves - Adele

Figure 7 – Student-initiating moves - Benjiro

Students B with Teacher Benjiro were slightly more likely to initiate moves in Japanese than in English as indicated in Figure 7. This was a sign that they were prepared to generate the target language when they had the opportunity to initiate a turn.

Samples are given here of instances of the four categories of exchanges initiated by students.

Category (i) starting a new sequence of exchanges

Student (S) initiated the exchanges to start a new sequence of talk at turn 398 as a means of finding out the correct form of classifier to use in a dialogue they were preparing in pair work.

Category i – starting a new sequence of exchanges (a)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
398	S	What's 'nihiki' mean?	What's 'two (small animals)' mean?	[[SI]]
399	T	'Hiki' is the classifier for counting small animals. [So what would that say?]	'hiki' is the classifier for counting small animals. [So what would that say?]	[[TR]]
400	S1	[what would you use for elephants?]	[what would you use for elephants?]	[[SI]]
401	T	Tou..	'tou' (counter for large animals)..	[[TR]]

Adele, March 7

Also in Category (i), in example (b), student S1 requested the floor in a short sequence and having got it, created a sentence as required by the activity. Benjiro (T) repeated the student's sentence and praised him in response.

Category i – starting a new sequence of exchanges (b)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
43	S1	Um	Um	[[SI]]
44	T	Jaa	So	[[TR]]
45	S1	I'm just trying to think of something.	I'm just trying to think of something.	[[SI]]
46	T	[jaa	[so	[[TR]]
47	S1	[rajio o kikimasu	[I listen to the radio	[[SI]]

48	T	Rajio o kikimasu. Iidesune	I listen to the radio. good.	[[TR]]
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Benjiro, June 6 part 1

Category (ii) – following adjacent elaborating feedback in the IRF exchange

In the second category, the following example in Benjiro’s lesson showed that student (S4) at turn 321 initiated an exchange. This was in response to the teacher’s feedback on the previous IRF exchange, stating that he did not understand the explanation of the sentence structure. Subsequently, student (S1) made an attempt which was successful.

Category ii – following adjacent elaborating feedback

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
320	T	ok. Ok. Hambaaga o taberu ga sukidesu right?.. But look at this /sentence/ English. /middle/ this one ne.. (circles the ~ing on board)	ok. Ok. I like to eat hamburgers right?.. But look at this /sentence/ English. /middle/ this one ne.. (circles the ~ing on board)	F
321	S4	/wakai[masu/	/I don’t [understand/	[[SI]]
322	T	[yeah that’s to.. to gerund. That’s today’s lesson.. /?/	[yeah that’s to.. to gerund. That’s today’s lesson.. /?/	[[TR]]
323	S1	is it koto?	is it ‘koto’?	[[SI]]

Benjiro, June 6 part 1

Category (iii) – following minimal extension in the teacher’s adjacent move

In the third category, a student-initiating move at turn 496 to produce the “Winter. Um is cold” followed an adjacent feedback of minimal extension by the teacher as a response to a previous initiating move by the same student in turn 494.

Category iii – following minimal extension in the teacher’s adjacent move

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
494	S5	Um now....um.wait. Fuyu.[fu	Um now....um.wait. Winter.[wi	[[SI]]
495	T	[wa	[wa (particle)	[[TR]]
496	S5	Fuyu wa. um samui desu.	winter. Um is cold.	[[SI]]
497	T	Yes. Sit down please...yes	Yes. Sit down please...yes	[[TR]] I

Benjiro, April 18

Category (iv) – following evaluation

In the fourth category, a student-initiating move in turn 386, one of only 11 instances in the data, followed an adjacent evaluation move by the teacher, “yes, yes”.

Category iv – following evaluation

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
385	T	yes.. yes.. =	yes.. yes.. =	E
386	S7	furansu go [heta	bad at [French	[[SI]]

Benjiro, June 6 part 1

Use of the third turn by teachers: providing content

In early studies in the literature, the IRE construction of the essential teaching exchange was noted primarily for its role in managing classroom behaviour and directing the focus of learning (McHoul,

1978; Mehan, 1979). There were examples of this purpose in the study. Teachers used the turn to maintain the pace of the lesson and to manage the contributions of individual students. Typically, teachers aimed to share opportunities for students to generate a sentence or two in Japanese, as part of their talking experience. This is the case depicted in Sample 1 about the weather, where feedback turn 484 is a managing turn.

Sample 1: Managing the turn

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
481	T	Yes?	Yes?	I
482	S 1	[Natsu ga atsui desu.	[summer is hot.	R
483	S2	[pick me. Pick me.	[pick me. Pick me.	R
484	T	Natsu wa atsui desu.. Yes. Sit down please.. hai..any sentence you can make..	summer is hot.. Yes. Sit down please.. yes..any sentence you can make..	F I

Benjiro, April 18

However, this study revealed that teachers used the third turn to realize other functions in the IRF exchange beyond managing the turn. For example, they provided content as input and adopted a communicative approach to their teaching. Even in teacher-fronted (Nunan, 2001; Ohta, 2001) sections of a lesson, the teacher tended to go beyond managing the turns of talk at the follow-up move (F). They acknowledged students' responses and often elaborated them prior to completing the turn with another initiating utterance, as at turns 236, 238 and 240 in Sample 2.

Sample 2: Providing content at the third turn

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
236	T	dinner. Evening meal.. ok... sono wa. /Jessica/ san. Sore o yondekudasai.	Dinner. Evening meal.. OK... That one is. /Jessica/. Please read that one.	F, I
237	J	Ah Monday	Ah Monday	R
238	T	ahh nihongo de.....getsu..	ahh In Japanese.....Mon	F I
239	J	Getsu. Getsuyoubi kara... kinyoubi made.	Mon. from Monday... to Friday.	R
240	T	Hai. Getsuyoubi kara kinyoubi made. Wakarimasuka?.. yes sou desuyo. Hai. Tsugi no wa umm Kate san.	Yes. From Monday to Friday. Do you understand?.. Yes, that's good. Yes. Next one is umm Kate.	F, I

Adele, 18 May

Effectiveness of Third Turn Moves

Both teachers were as likely to produce effective feedback moves in Japanese as in English. They were also more likely to provide effective turns in Japanese as in English than when they mixed the two language codes. Criteria for effective and less effective feedback moves were established on the basis of opportunities identified in the transcripts for students to engage in meaningful dialogue. Features designated "Effective" were outlined as types (a) – (f). "Less effective" feedback moves were indicated as types (g) – (h).

Effective Moves

The feedback move was defined as effective when:

- a teacher confirmed by extending or elaborating or exemplifying a student's answer OR
- a teacher confirmed by repairing, or recasting words to evoke student's confirmation OR
- a teacher confirmed by highlighting a specific part of the response OR
- a teacher continued dialogue on the same topic with a student OR
- a student acknowledged repair to his/her response in some way, by taking the next turn from the teacher and adjusting the earlier response to improve its comprehensibility OR
- a student engaged in discussion through a cohesive line of enquiry.

Samples of teacher talk exemplifying effective feedback moves according to the criteria are identified below.

Type (a) Extension of student response

Type (a) effective feedback moves occurred as a teacher confirmed by extending or by elaborating a student's answer.

In Sample 3, Teacher Adele confirmed student S's response at lines 20 and 22 by extending her knowledge of the types of noun that take the plural form for cylindrical objects.

Sample 3: Type (a) effective feedback move - extending

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
20	S	Drink bottles	Drink bottles	R
21	T	Drink bottles, legs of tables and chairs or whatever. OK Anything long cylindrical.	Drink bottles, legs of tables and chairs or whatever. OK Anything long cylindrical.	Fextending
22	S	Legs!	Legs!	R
23	T	..People's legs. (Students laughing). I think so yes. OK. Let's count those. We classify those with hon with exactly the shhh (indicating for a student to be quiet) exactly the same pattern as with hai. Go.	..People's legs. (Students laughing). I think so yes. OK. Let's count those. We classify those with 'hon' with exactly the shhh (indicating for a student to be quiet) exactly the same pattern as with 'hai'. Go.	Fextending I

Adele, March 7

In Sample 4, Teacher Adele elaborated the student's response to an earlier question, putting an example of using the term 'love' into context of foods she liked.

Sample 4: Type (a) effective feedback move - elaborating

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
2	J	daisuki	Love	R
3	T	hai. daisuki na mono.. daisuki na mono.. mise de.. naniga daisuki desuka?.. chokoretto keeki ga sukidesuka?.. sushi ga daisuki desuka? naniga daisuki desuka ne.. hai... atarashii kotoba.. nedan.. nedan wa?.. nedan atarashii kotoba...(writes on board) 'nedan' wa price desune. eigo de 'price' desu... /hoka/ no wa.. Amanda san?...	yes. The things I love.. The things I love.. At the shop.. what do you love?.. Do you like chocolate cake?.. Do you love sushi? What do you love, you see.. OK... A new word.. Price..Price?.. price a new word...(writes on board) 'nedan' is price, you see. In English it is 'price'... /Another one/.. Amanda?...	Felaborating I

Adele, May 11

In Sample 5, through the follow-up move, Teacher Benjiro gave a metaphorical example of the shape of the Japanese characters resembling a snowflake to clarify students' understanding. His exemplifying feedback prompted a student to initiate the next exchange.

Sample 5: Type (a) effective feedback move - exemplifying

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
395	S	That'd be five.	That'd be five.	R
396	S	Yes	Yes	R
397	T	Five	Five	F
398	S	Yes	Yes	R
399	S	Yes	Yes	R
400	T	Yeah. can you see the snowflake. Blowing. Blowing?	Yeah. can you see the snowflake. Blowing. Blowing?	F exemplifying
401	S	How does that look like a snowflake?	How does that look like a snowflake?	[[SI]]
402	S	It's japanese	It's japanese	[[SR]]
403	T	Just imagination. Imagination. [/?/	Just imagination. Imagination. [/?/	[[TR]]

Benjiro, April 18

Type (b) Repair of student response

Type (b) effective feedback moves occurred as the teacher repaired or recast a student's previous response.

In Sample 6 at the feedback moves in turns 194 and 196, Teacher Adele repaired student R's response until she adjusted her pronunciation of the word "Irashaimase".

Sample 6: Type (b) effective feedback move - repairing

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
193	Ss	Irashaimase. Irashaimase	welcome. Welcome	R
194	T	Irashaimase.	welcome.	F (repair)
195	R	/irajai mase/	/ welcome/	R
196	T	No. irashaimase	No. welcome	F (repair)
197	T	Irashaimase...	welcome...	R

Adele, March 7

In Sample 7, Teacher Benjiro recast student S13's response by modelling question and answer at turn 99 as a means of clarifying the syntax structure.

Sample 7: Type (b) effective feedback move - recasting

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
97	T	Ja ok ja ne..uhhh:: doko ni sundeimasuka?	Right ok right..uhhh:: Where are you living? (Where do you live)	E, I
98	S13	Ahh doko ni [/?/	Ahh where are [/?/	R
99	T	Sundeimasuka?..doko ni sundeimasuka?...watashi wa.. Toowoomba ni sundeimasu. /anata wa?/..	are you living?..where are you living?...I. live in Toowoomba. /and you?/	F (recasting)

Benjiro April 18

Type (c) Specific highlight of student response

Type (c) effective feedback moves occurred when the teacher highlighted a specific part of a student's response. In Sample 8, the "what?" exclamation at turn 458 by the teacher highlighted to student S9 that his response, although meaningful, contained an error and signalled to S8 that he should provide the correct particle, and to S9 to self-correct at turn 460. As was typical of type (c) effective moves, students corrected the forms of utterance when a teacher highlighted the need.

Sample 8: Type (c) effective feedback move - highlighting

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
455	S9	ah. Ah.. dansu =	ah. Ah.. dance =	R
456	T	oh dansu [ne	oh dance [right	F
457	S9	= [yeah. dansu go..	= [yeah. Dance go.. (incorrect particle)	R
458	T	what?	what?	F (highlighting) (I)
459	S8	dansu ga	dance ga (correct particle)	[[SR]]
460	S9	oh dansu ga... he oh jouzu..	he oh good at... oh dance	R
461	S8	janai.	not.	[[SR]]
462	S9	jouzu janai.	not good at.	R
463	S8	desu	I am	[[SR]]
464	S9	desu.	I am.	R
465	T	/say it again please/	/say it again please/	I
466	S9	dansu ga jouzu janai desu.	I'm not good at dance.	R

Benjiro, June 6 part 2

Similarly in Sample 9, at turn 296, the teacher highlighted the student's utterance with the "Ah" exclamation. This had the effect of focussing attention on her use of "kitsu" and they established a shared meaning for that word. Teacher Adele used turn 298 to confirm that the term was appropriate and she elaborated its socio-cultural meaning. Student S7 proceeded to take turn 299 in a meaningful exchange posing a question which more traditionally would have been taken by the teacher.

Sample 9: Type (c) effective feedback move - highlighting

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
295	S7?	Kitsu	Kitsu	[[SI]]
296	T	Ah	Ah	[[TR]] highlighting
297	S7	I mean kitsu	I mean kitsu	[SR]
298	T	Kitsi.. Japanese /?/.....that's a pot. /that would be a pot/ for the Japanese tea ceremony and it's standing in a sand /?/	Kitsi.. Japanese /?/.....that's a pot. /that would be a pot/ for the Japanese tea ceremony and it's standing in a sand /?/	F
299	S7	Nanbai?	How many (cupfuls)?	[[SI]]

Adele, March 7

Type (d) Continuation of dialogue with student

Type (d) effective feedback moves occurred when the teacher maintained dialogue with the student on the same topic. At turn 95, the teacher continued talking with student S7 as meaningful communication relating her enjoyment of berries with the student's experience.

Sample 10: Type (d) effective feedback move – maintaining dialogue

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
94	S7	Um..Chokoretto to berri jusu...	Um..Chocolate and berry juice...	R

95	T	iidesu. Watashi no daisuki /tabe/ ni iidesu. Namae wa?..watashi no daisuki /tabemasu/ rasberri ga daisuki desune?..	That's good. It's my favourite /food/. Name?..My favourite /eating/ I love raspberry, right?..	F (maintaining dialogue)I
96	S7	Yeah ok (T walks to another group of students).....	Yeah ok (T walks to another group of students).....	R

Adele, May 11

In Sample 11 of Type (d) effective feedback moves, Teacher Benjiro allowed student S4 to continue a dialogue with him. Appearing surprised at S4's response at turn 725, Benjiro provided feedback in the form of a question which invited him to continue his turn. By simply extending the dialogue at the third turn 726, and giving natural follow-up in Japanese, Benjiro allowed S4 to elaborate his short first answer. Although he began in English, S4 completed expressing a single idea competently in Japanese at turn 727. The resulting uptake by Benjiro in turn 728 had S4 engaged at a higher level of thinking. Teacher and student were co-constructing their understanding of the item S4 planned to buy in Japan on his visit. Turns 729 and 730 show that their construction was not perfect, for the teacher concluded the exchange there, not having resolved the student's choice. The hindsight provided by transcription shows us that the student had a micro TV in mind whereas the teacher was probably thinking more of the conventional kind.

Sample 11: Type (d) effective feedback move – maintaining dialogue

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
724	T	ah kaimono o shimasu. Nani o kaimasuka?	ah I'm going to go shopping. What are you going to buy?	F, I
725	S4	/oh everything/	/oh everything/	R
726	T	nani o?	what?	F,I
727	S4	umm... a terebi o kaimasu.	umm... a I'm going to buy a TV.	R
728	T	terebi!... chotto omoi desune.	TV!... it's a bit heavy right.	F, I
729	S4	iie	iie	R
730	T	so terebi /hontou/ /?/=	so TV /really/ /?/=	F

Benjiro, June 6 part 3

Type (e) Student adjustment

Type (e) effective moves occurred as a student acknowledged that he needed to adjust his last response to improve its comprehensibility. In Sample 12, student S9 was paying attention to the plain form ending. He initiated a query [[SI]] at turn 195 which effected Benjiro's reply [[TR]]. That response confirmed they were discussing the same verb. S9 hesitated in his attempt to provide a complete verb response < Ben.kyousuru> to which Benjiro offered an explanation as feedback at turn 198, and S9 acknowledged his learning at turn 199.

Sample 12: Type (e) effective feedback move – achieved student acknowledgement of feedback

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
194	T	mi.RU. yes	mi.RU. (NOTE EMPHASIS on plain form) yes	F, I
195	S9	What? benkyoushimasu! How=	What? study! How=	R[[SI]]
196	T	Benkyoushimasu?	Study?	F[[TR]]

197	S9	Ben.kyousuru	Stu.dy	R
198	T	Benkyou..Surune. so this one goes to there ne.. benkyou[surune	Stu..dy. so this one goes to there right..stu[dy right	F (student acknowledged)
199	S9	[Oh yeah /I didn't know that/	[Oh yeah /I didn't know that/	[[SE]]

Benjiro, June 6

Type (f) Cohesion in line of inquiry

Type (f) effective feedback moves developed discussion through a cohesive line of enquiry. A student might go further than to recognise that his/her turn needed adjustment to achieve comprehensibility. As shown in Sample 13, a coherent line of enquiry followed the adjustment. In the sequence of exchanges, student S8 had the opportunity to maintain the turn with his teacher. We can observe from the transcript that Benjiro understood the word “terebi” (TV) in its traditional sense, as a piece of living room furniture, whereas student S8 had a smaller, presumably microchip design in mind, given his emphatic response “ii..e (no..o)”. This type of third turn exemplified a learning context in which talk was used as the means of co-constructing understanding. At turn 205, S8 gave a response which was not one expected but it was judged legitimate. Benjiro allowed him to maintain the turn through the following sequence of exchanges.

In turn 206, S8 changed the structure of his responses to initiate turns by making directives at turns 207, 209, 213, 219, 221, 223. He instructed Benjiro about his thinking through the steps already outlined on the board and initiated questions when he needed clarification from Benjiro. He instructed another student at turn 211 that his turn had not yet finished and then continued meaningful coherent enquiry. At turn 224, it was evident that student S2 had benefited from the sequence of constructive exchanges between Benjiro and S8 as they had co-constructed an understanding of the grammar point.

Sample 13: Type (f) effective feedback move – discussion through a cohesive line of enquiry as a student acknowledged feedback and extended the talk

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
204	T	Kikune. Ok.. Would you please tell me the rule. what's the difference between masu form and the plain form. Yes?	Listen right. Ok.. Would you please tell me the rule. what's the difference between masu form and the plain form. Yes?	F, I
205	S8	Plain form's in the dictionary. Masu form's what we say.	Plain form's in the dictionary. 'Masu' (polite ending of verb) form's what we say.	R
206	T	Yes. How can you. find us the plain form from masu form.	Yes. How can you. find us the plain form from 'masu' form.	E, I
207	S8	Yeah go to =	Yeah go to =	R
208	T	Yes?	Yes?	E
209	S8	= one thing down on this. You like go =	= one thing down on this. You like go =	[[SI]]
210	S11	Yeah but [it's like	Yeah but [it's like	[[SR]]
211	S8	= [yeah but Shh.	= [yeah but Shh.	[[SI]]
212	T	(laugh)	(laugh)	[[TR]]
213	S8	Yes /but you like/=	Yes /but you like/=	[[SI]]

214	T	Yeah masu form is always	Yeah 'masu' form is always	[[TR]] Cohesive line of enquiry	
215	S8	i	i	[[SR]]	Teacher's actions
216	T	Shi.. Mi.. /and after this one ne/ nomi. This [one.	do..watch.. /and after this one right/ drink. This [one.	[[TR]] Cohesive line of enquiry	Writes romaji (English letters shi, mi) below verbs
217	S2	[/?/ /Jason/	[/?/ /Jason/		
218	T	. i.ki. and aso.bi. and this one? Benkyou.shi. Right? So you said? Yes?	. g.o. and pl.ay. and this one? Stu.dy. Right? So you said? Yes?	[[TR]] Cohesive line of enquiry	Writes romaji (English letters, ki, bi, shi) below verbs
219	S8	Yeah then you like change it to the next column /to/	Yeah then you like change it to the next column /to/	[[SI]]	
220	T	Next one /would/. Yes. to?	Next one /would/. Yes. to?	[[TR]] Cohesive line of enquiry	
221	S8	To the next like column thing	To the next like column thing	[[SR]]	
222	T	To?	To?	I	
223	S8	To the column.. /oh here it is/	To the column.. /oh here it is/	R	
224	S2	/Ok/	/Ok/	R	
225	T	That's right different. That's also different ne...ok /so look at this one for a minute/ shi and /underneath/ su. Ne.this one? /k.i. underneath. k.u./ ne. this one m.i. undeneath. m.u. ne. that's it.. so why this one.. mean underneath. ku. why not?	That's right different. That's also different right...ok /so look at this one for a minute/ 'shi' and /underneath/ 'su'. right.this one? /k.i. underneath. k.u./ right. this one m.i. undeneath. m.u. right. that's it.. so why this one.. mean underneath. ku. why not?	F Cohesive line of enquiry I	Circles different verb; writes romaji (English letters) below verbs
226	S8	Because it's special	Because it's special	R	
227	T	Oo /that's/ the reason?	Oo /that's/ the reason?	F Cohesive line of enquiry (I)	
228	S8	Um only one syllable. Yeah one syllable	Um only one syllable. Yeah one syllable	R	
229	T	Only one syllable yes only one syllable left	Only one syllable yes only one syllable left	F Cohesive line of enquiry	Circles character

Benjiro, June 6 part 1

Less Effective Moves

Criteria were also established to identify less effective feedback moves in the third turn of the IRF exchange on the basis of reduced opportunity for students to engage in meaningful dialogue. The evaluative third part was defined as less-effective when:

1. the teacher terminated the individual's response of the previous turn primarily for managing control over turns of talk in the classroom;

2. the teacher assessed the response minimally, for example by evaluating with a “yes” or “no” or “wrong” without explanation.

Type (g) Terminated student talk

Type (g) less effective moves occurred as a teacher terminated an individual response. Teachers used this feedback move as a means of reducing the length of a student’s response, principally as a management tool. In Sample 14, the teacher’s feedback move at turn 14 terminated S1’s turn, and initiated a new question on an unrelated topic.

Sample 14: Type (g) less effective feedback move – terminating student response

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
12	T	=desuKA?	=IS it?	I
13	S1	Atsui desu	It’s hot	R
14	T	Atsui desu. Suwattekudasai....	It’s hot. Please sit down....	F (terminated)
15	Ss	Ohh! (exclamations)	Ohh! (exclamations)	R
16	T	Kinou..nani o. mimashitaka?./terebi/. nani o mimashitaka?..	Yesterday..what. did you see?./TV/. what did you see?..	I
17	S2	Simpsons..wa..	Simpsons..is..	R

Benjiro, April 18

Type (h) No follow-up

Type (h) less effective moves occurred as a teacher evaluated a student’s response in traditional IRE form. There was no follow-up feedback. In Sample 15, at turn 66, Benjiro evaluates the adjacency pair by using the word “wrong” as the evaluation.

Sample 15: Type (h) less effective move - evaluation

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move
64	S1	o	o (syntax marker, used incorrectly here)	R
65	S3	o	o (syntax marker, used incorrectly here)	R
66	T	Wrong.. stand up please.	Wrong.. stand up please	E (evaluation), I

Benjiro, April 18

Communicative Language Ability

Teachers' follow-up moves were realized in this study as providing input to help students develop their communicative competence. Criteria defined by Bachman (1990) as communicative language ability (CLA) were used to indicate the type of proficiency the teacher appeared to be developing at third turns [E/F] or at the equivalent teacher response [TR] to a student's initiating move [SI]. CLA components included:

1. Organisational competence '**O**', further defined as grammatical competence '**O-g**' (-**v**-vocabulary, morphology, -**s**-syntax and phonology, -**g**-graphology) and textual competence '**O-t**' (-**c**-cohesive and -**r**-rhetorical);
2. Pragmatic competence '**P**', further defined as illocutionary competence '**P-i**' (-**i**-ideational, -**m**-manipulative, -**h**-heuristic, -**i**-imaginative) language functions; and -**s**-sociolinguistic competence '**P-s**' (-**s**-sensitivity to dialect or variety, -**r**-register, -**n**-naturalness, -**cr**-cultural references and -**f**-figures of speech);
3. Strategic competence '**Str**', used to refer to three strategic metacognitive skills (-**ass**-assessing, -**plan**-planning, -**exec**-executing).

Figure 8 shows relative proportion of communicative competencies identified in follow-up moves. Of 199 moves analysed of Adele just over half the feedback was identified as helping students develop pragmatic competence, to understand intended meanings in interactions. With more than twice the number of moves, Benjiro appeared to focus CLA support on organisational features in the feedback through 70% of feedback moves.

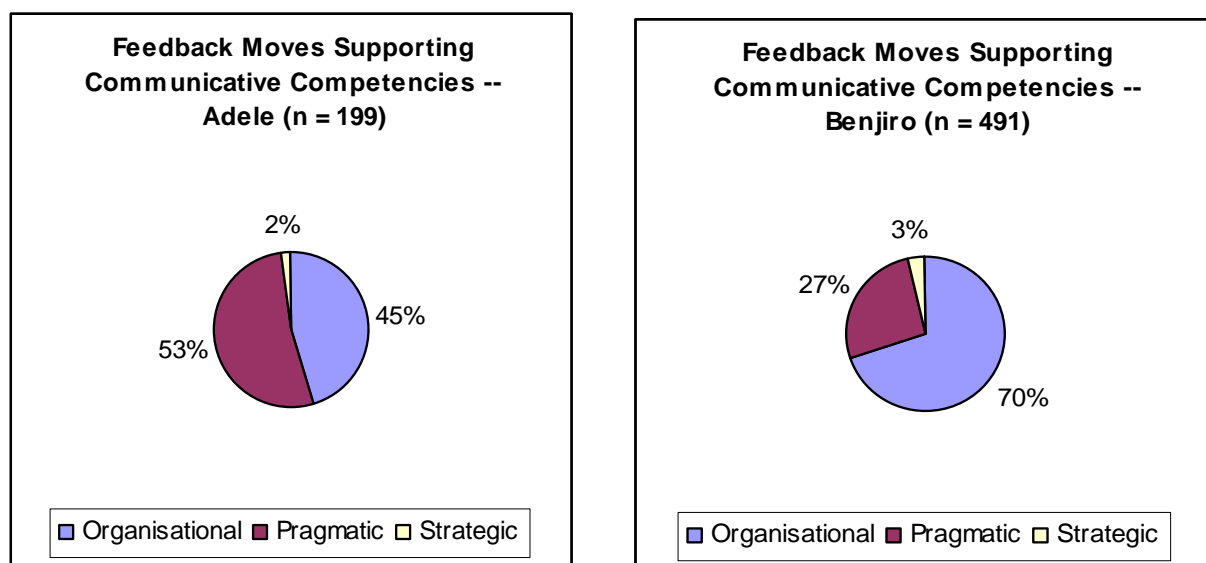


Figure 8 – Comparative proportion of feedback moves supporting communicative language ability

Potential for Productive Pedagogies (PP)

The model used in this study to indicate potential for productive pedagogy (PP) was the productive pedagogies framework, developed by the Curriculum Implementation Unit of Education Queensland in the New Basics Project. The Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study (QSRLS) informed the productive pedagogies framework which is intended for application across subject disciplines so it was used in a LOTE context in this study. It enabled classification of a teacher's behaviour through the language used in the third turn as potential for more productive use of that pivotal point in the teacher's interaction with students.

The strong version of productive pedagogies advocates avoidance of the three-step I-R-E interaction. However, data from this study demonstrated that the reality of classroom talk reflected a natural commitment to the essential teaching exchange. It was found to incorporate valuable feedback as the follow-up move. The third turn provided strategic opportunities for a teacher to maximise learning opportunities. Exchanges were mapped out and analysed as having potential for productive pedagogies through the third turn. Coding on the transcriptions was based on the following framework, adapted from 'A Guide to Productive Pedagogies' (New Basics Project 2001) Education Queensland 2001 as identified by Hayes et al. (2000) in the Queensland School Reform Longitudinal Study. Table 3 was reproduced here for ease of following transcribed coding of the talk samples.

Table 3 – Coding Productive Pedagogies

Intellectual quality*	Connectedness*	Supportive classroom environment*	Recognition of difference*
1. Higher order thinking (PP1)	7. Knowledge Integration (PP7)	11. Student Control (direction) (PP11)	16. Cultural Knowledges (PP16)
2. Deep Knowledge (PP2)	8. Background Knowledge (PP8)	12. Social Support (PP12)	17. Inclusivity (PP17)
3. Deep Understanding (PP3)	9. Connectedness to the world (PP9)	13. Engagement (PP13)	18. Narrative (PP18)
4. Substantive Conversation (PP4) a. intellectual substance b. dialogue c. logical extension & synthesis d. sustained exchange	10. Problem-Based Curriculum (PP10)	14. Explicit Criteria (PP14)	19. Group Identity (PP19)
5. Knowledge problematic (PP5)		15. Self-Regulation (PP15)	20. Citizenship (PP20)
6. Metalanguage (PP6)			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Numbers 1-20 are the behaviour dimensions of the 20 Productive Pedagogies. Codes are used throughout to indicate potential in the teacher's talk for the numbered productive pedagogy; e.g., (PP1-potential for higher order thinking). • In this analysis, the term 'metalanguage' (PP6), was used as any reference by teacher or student to grammatical features and syntax, though they may have omitted explicit grammatical terminology. • Productive pedagogy academic engagement (PP13) was an ongoing feature of the classroom exchanges. It was so prevalent that it was not presented specifically on the charts. 			

Pedagogy can be defined as “the work of a teacher” and as “instruction” (Macquarie 1982, p.492). The concept ‘productive pedagogies’ (Education Queensland 2001) was applied to essential teaching exchanges (IRE/F) through the study. A decision was made about each identifiable teaching exchange at the focal moment that a teacher gave feedback to a student’s response. Moves during the third turn were classified as demonstrating potential for at least one of the productive pedagogies in the Queensland framework (Education Queensland 2001) in addition to the productive pedagogy (PP13) ‘engagement’. PP13 was realised at every reported exchange for a student was communicating with the teacher in those interactions. Potential for other productive pedagogies has been coded and labelled through the transcription tables. Effects of feedback in the follow-up moves provided the main focus of the study.

Teacher’s feedback was deemed to have potential for realising productive pedagogy (or it was realised) from within four main categories and 20 sub categories. It was not the purpose of this study to measure the depth and breadth of productivity but to indicate potential effects of the third turn of talk in IRE/F exchanges in relation to productive pedagogies.

Figures 9 & 10 show proportion of potential for types of productive pedagogies identified in follow-up moves by Adele and Benjiro. Both teachers’ feedback moves were considered to display potential for intellectual quality (66% and 51% respectively) more often than other pedagogies, frequently in developing substantive conversation and related language production. Teacher Benjiro also generated a high proportion of feedback moves (30%) deemed encouraging to students, and these were identified as providing potential for a supportive classroom environment.

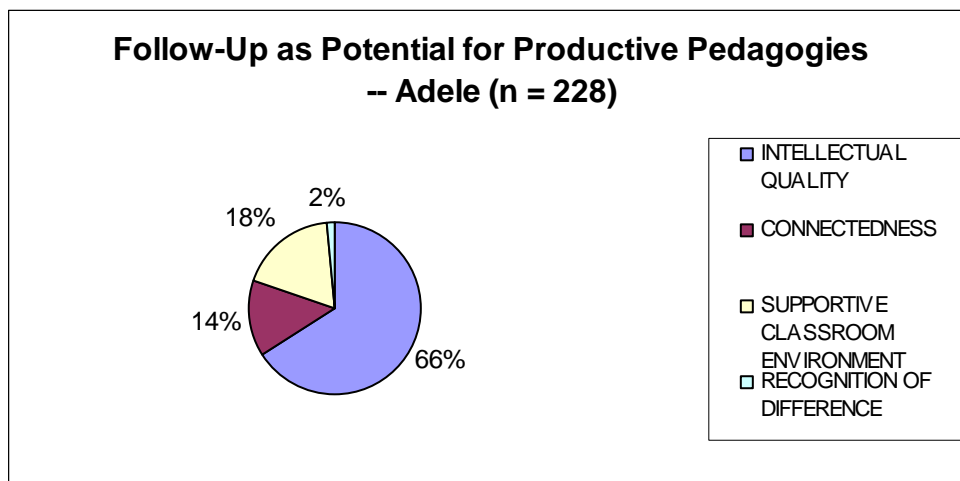


Figure 9 – Proportion Productive Pedagogies in Feedback Moves - Adele

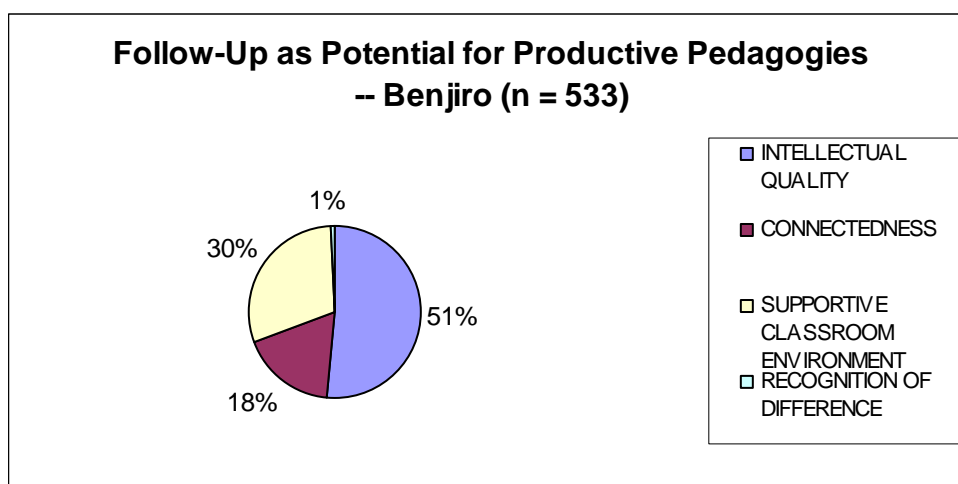


Figure 10 – Proportion Productive Pedagogies in Feedback Moves - Benjiro

In Sample 16, it was inferred that Teacher Adele was helping S to develop communicative competence. As the teacher confirmed and elaborated the student’s response at turn 60, her talk was considered to be focussed on the student’s understanding of an implied abstract meaning in Japanese through problem-solving and coded therefore as pragmatic competence – illocutionary - heuristic (P-i-h). Adele was also demonstrating potential for productive pedagogy. As she reformulated the student’s response and extended her follow-up move, at the same time physically removing three cups and setting up the next initiating move, there was an opportunity for her to incorporate ‘Intellectual quality’ into her dialogue, exploring deeper knowledge. This was coded (PP2). Given the teacher (T) was speaking in Japanese, this move could have been extended or elaborated taking the thinking of the next question into account before delivering the initiating move in turn 60. Potential for productive pedagogy 2 ‘deep knowledge’ was considered therefore to be evident though not fully realised by the teacher in that moment. The follow-up was not used to make explicit and explore higher order relationships available through such engagement.

Sample 16: Potential for productive pedagogy

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
59	S	Ju::san	Thirteen::n	R		
60	T	Jusan desu. More than ten. Simple numbers. Jusan.. jusan desune.. So coppu wa. jusan desu....(T removes 3 cups from packet) Coppu wa ikutsu desuka?..	There are thirteen. More than ten. Simple numbers. Thirteen.. thirteen okay then.. So there are. thirteen cups....(T removes 3 cups from packet). How many (objects) cups are there?..	F I	P-i-h	2

Adele, March 7

T removed 3 cups for all Ss to see. T directed her question to all students.

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP	Action
61	S	Mi[tsu	Th[ree (objects)	R		1	//2 /3.T pretends to drink a cup of coffee
62	T	[mittsu desu ne.. hai.	[There are three (objects)	F,	P-i	4a	S

		Ima. Koohii. Watashi wa kohii o nondeimasune?.. Koohii o?..	aren't there.. Ok. now. coffee. I am drinking coffee, aren't I?.. Coffee?..	I			erroneously said 'ippun' instead of 'ippai' meaning one cupful.
63	S	Ip[pun	o[ne (cupful)	R		11,4 b	/3
64	T	[ippai =	[one (cupful) =	I		1	

Helping students develop Communicative Language Ability and indicating potential for Productive Pedagogies at third turns

Data in Samples 17-27 represented ways that teachers appeared to be helping students develop their communicative language ability as they demonstrated potential for using productive pedagogies though that pedagogy was often not realised during the IRE/F exchange.

Through his narrative shown in Sample 17, Teacher Benjiro was drawing on students' background knowledge (PP8) and guiding their recognition of cohesion in a text (O-t-c) about snowflakes. This related to the Japanese characters being studied.

Sample 17: Potential for Productive Pedagogy using students' background knowledge while developing CLA in textual competence at turns 393 and 397

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
392	S	[yeah /I said that one/	[yeah /I said that one/	R		
393	T	Good how about winter?.	good how about winter?.	F I	O-t- c	8
394	S	That would be.three?..	That would be.three?..	R		
395	S	That'd be five.	That'd be five.	R		
396	S	Yes	Yes	R		
397	T	Five	Five	F	O-t- c	8
398	S	Yes	Yes	R		
399	S	Yes	Yes	R		

Benjiro, 18 April

In Sample 18, at turn 400 the follow-up move from Benjiro is rhetorical rather than a questioning at the start of the next exchange. Students took the teacher's narrative feedback (PP18) as a transitional relevant place to initiate a move at turn 401. Student S took some control over the outcomes of the lesson (PP11), as the teacher's metaphoric feedback referred to a rule written on the board about how to recognise the Japanese character writing of the concept 'winter'. The effect was noted in the level of participation in the next turns. At turn 408, teacher Benjiro incorporated the visual symbol of the Japanese character with its sound to continue his narrative and to foreground the productive pedagogy "Recognition of Difference" by bringing cultural knowledge into play (PP16).

At the same time, it was inferred that the teacher was assisting students to develop communicative language ability (CLA) through rhetorical analysis of the written text (O-t-r) at turns 400 and 408.

In addition, there were other competencies involved: developing imaginative ability (P-i-im) to understand the illocutionary meaning of the text beyond character recognition at turn 403, and strategic competence (Str) in planning how to relate the characters to the message.

Sample 18: Potential for Productive Pedagogies 8, 18, 16 & 11 while developing Communicative Language Ability through text analysis, imaginative abilities, strategies

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
400	T	Yeah. can you see the snowflake Blowing, blowing.	Yeah. can you see the snowflake. Blowing, blowing.	F	O-t-r	8 18
401	S	How does that look like a snowflake?	How does that look like a snowflake?	[[SI]]		
402	S	It's Japanese	It's japanese	[[SR]]		
403	T	Just imagination. Imagination. [/?/	Just imagination. Imagination. [/?/	[[TR]]	Pi-im Str	11
404	S	[/?/	[/?/			
405	AT*	/John/ san he's wearing a coat and it's blowing	Mr /John/ he's wearing a coat and it's blowing			
406	S	Yeah that's what I thought. a rain coat.	Yeah that's what I thought. a rain coat.	[[SR]]		
407	AT*	Yes	Yes			
408	T	And for you (fuyu)...a christmas present for you. For you.	And for you (winter)...a christmas present for you. For you	F/ (I)	O-t-r	16 18

Benjiro, April 18 (*AT=Assistant Teacher)

Teacher as Secondary Knower

When conversation is simulated in the classroom, the talk of the “interlocutors” resembles natural discourse with two or more speakers involved. The speaker tends to ask a question in the role of secondary knower, in which there is negotiation available in the reply. One interlocutor seeks information from the other and does not know the answer to the question until s/he hears the reply. There is thus exchange of meaning between the two.

Data from six lessons revealed that there was potential for nearly as many teacher-initiating moves to be of the negotiating type with the teacher as secondary knower based on the content of the question. The differentiating element was in the way the teacher provided follow-up moves to students’ responses. When teachers Adele and Benjiro treated responses in terms of Organisational Competence, negotiation questions were more often ‘heard’ as display questions, with the value of second guessing the teacher’s expected answer, than of a negotiation question seeking unknown information.

In role play situations, there was potential for interactive social use of the third turn when the context included the teacher seeking information for meaning. In Sample 19, the student is primary knower of the teacher’s question. The teacher could not have been expected to know the answer until the student replied. There was potential for dialogue (PP4b) through probing questions. The teacher’s talk realised development of the student’s CLA through use of vocabulary at turns 36 and 38 showing types of chocolate she liked. Teacher Adele used the target language exclusively and

although the student responded in English, as primary knower, she was engaged in the exchange of meaning in a communicative situation.

Sample 19: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4b (dialogue) while developing Communicative Language Ability (O-g-v) through vocabulary

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Moves	CLA	PP
36	T	ah ha. sou desuka. hai. chotto matte, chotto matte. /darega/.. chokoretto ga suki desuka?.. dare ga chokoretto ga suki desuka? (slowly articulated).. hai.. /donna/ chokoretto ga suki desuka?...donna. watashi wa dark chokoretto ga suki desune. jinjaa chokoretto ga suki desune.. donna tabe ah chokoretto ga suki desuka?..	ah ha. Is that so? Yes. Wait a minute, wait a minute. /Who/.. likes chocolate?.. Who likes chocolate? (slowly articulated)..Yes.. /What kind of/ chocolate do you like?... What kind of. I like dark chocolate, you see. I like ginger chocolate, you see.. What kind of food ah chocolate do you like?..	F, I	O-g-v	4b
37	S	Dark chocolate	Dark chocolate	R		
38	T	aa sou desuka?.. omoshiroi ne. Peta san.. chokoretto?.. /darega/ chokoretto o tabemasenka?... chokoretto o tabemasenka?... tabemasuka?... chokoretto tabemasuka?... uh?	Oh really?... interesting hey. Peta. chocolate?... /Who/ doesn't eat chocolate?... Don't you eat chocolate?... Do you eat it?... Do you eat chocolate?... uh?	F, I	O-g-v	4b
39	S	Iie	no	R		

Adele, May 11

In a second role play situation, shown in Sample 20, students had constructed their own shop. At lines 167 and 169 there was potential for dialogue (PP4b) as Teacher Adele clarified the cost of an item at three dollars. She also appeared to realise development of CLA, in two ways. The first was through the manipulative function (P-i-m) to obtain a decision on the price of an item. Second, she realised sensitivity to register (P-s-r) given the nature of the social exchange between customer and salespersons.

Sample 20: Potential for Productive Pedagogies (4b) dialogue while developing Communicative Language Ability through the manipulative function and register

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
165	T	Soshite?	And?	I		4b
166	S	Chingching. Chingching. (imitating cash register)	Chingching. Chingching. (imitating cash register)	R		11
167	T	Ikura desuka?. Ikura desuka? How much is it?...san doru?.. san doru?..	How much is it?. How much is it? How much is it?...three dollars?.. three dollars?..	F, I	P-i-m	4b
168	S	Sandoru	Three dollars	R		4b
169	T	San doru desu....hai. douzo.	It's three dollars....OK. here you are.	F	P-s-r	4b

Adele, March 7

By way of contrast on occasions, Teacher Benjiro became a secondary knower. The question he posed appeared to be a negotiating question, but his feedback at the third turn changed the focus of communication. There he was checking the accuracy of the student's language production in developing grammatical competence of the individual and the class as shown in Sample 21. At turn 31, during a review of learned structures, the teacher asked a negotiating question as secondary

knower, for he did not know the answer the student would give at turn 32. There was potential for productive pedagogies of intellectual substance (PP1) related to teaching the meaning of the question in Japanese, and of problematic knowledge in ways of constructing an answer (PP5) but these were not clearly realised by any explicit statement by the teacher.

At turn 33, rather than seeking topical information, the teacher's question was designed to seek syntactical content knowledge. This was confirmed by the utterance "ugh. ok yes sit down" completing the feedback move before starting the next initiating move with another student.

Potential for productive pedagogy was not realised at lines 36 by extending the exchange for substantive conversation including intellectual substance, logical extension and sustained exchange (PP4a, c, d) and in line 38 by foregrounding the phoneme (metalinguage PP6). However, throughout this segment, Teacher Benjiro was seen to realise students' development of CLA in vocabulary choice (O-g-v), phonology (O-g-p) and morphology (O-g-m).

Sample 21: Potential for Productive Pedagogies 1, 3, 4a, b, c, d, & 5 (dialogue) while developing Communicative Language Ability through vocabulary (O-g-v), phonology (O-g-p), morphology (O-g-m)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
31	T	Mimashita. sou ne. hai..ja...dinner.. nani o tabemashitaka?..dinner.hai?	Watched. Right. ok..well...What did you eat for. dinner?..dinner. yes?	F, I	O-g-v	1 4a 5
32	S6	Ahh..Sausages tabemashita.	Ahh..I ate sausages.	R		
33	T	Sausage ne. ugh. ok hai suwatte. Ja nani o nomimashitaka?...	Sausage right. ugh. ok yes sit down. Let me see What did you drink?...	F, I	O-g-v	4a, b, c, 1, 5
34	S3	Ahh [nan	Ahh [what	R		
35	S4	/lemonade/ o nomimasu	I am drinking /lemonade/	R		
36	T	Eh? No.mi.ma.shi	Hey? no.mima.shi (articulating syllables of the past participle 'nomimashita', rather than the present tense that the student attempted 'nomimasu')	F	O-g-p	6
37	S4	Shi	Shi	R		
38	T	TA. Sou ne. hai..nihongo o benkyoushimshitaka?..hai?.	TA. (emphasizing the syllable indicating verb is in the past tense). right then.	F	O-g-m	3, 4d

Benjiro, April 18

Communicative Exchanges and a Teacher's Role in IRE/F

One of the teacher's prominent roles in a communicative language classroom is to foster meaningful use of the target language. In the case displayed in Sample 22, the setting was a make-believe food shop and the teacher was looking to buy some soup. As a feedback move at turn 286, Teacher Adele showed that S5's gesture was made in an acceptable register (P-s-r) for the communicative environment. S5 responded minimally, as one might do naturally when shopping. There was potential for dialogue (PP4b) which was not clearly realised.

Sample 22: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4b (dialogue) while developing Communicative Language Ability through pragmatic sociolinguistic competence in register (P-s-r)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
284	T	Dono dono supu ga suki desuka?...dono supu ga suki desuka?.....dono supu ga suki desuka?	What kind of soup do you like?...what kind of soup do you like?.....what kind of soup do you like?	I		
285	S5	(points to a soup packet)	(points to a soup packet)	[R]		
286	T	Sou desuka? Watashi wa /kappuchan/ daisuki desu...daisuki desu.. a /arigatou arigatou/.....	oh really? I love /Kappuchan/...love it.. th /thank you thank you/.....	F	P-s-r	4b

Adele, March 7

Often in the same turn as providing evaluation, teachers indicated the next turn-taker by gesture, by pointing and as in Sample 23, by saying “Yes” as at turn 162. This is the way Teacher Benjiro managed language production throughout his lessons, by pointing to the next student as he bid him to speak next. He often began lessons in this way also. Students individually produced the target language for the teacher to hear pronunciation, consider the morphology, syntax and semantic meaning of their utterances before he invited them to sit down. Benjiro applied this strategy through three or four sequences in a lesson. When he did, a student had to generate a relevant utterance. There was potential for productive pedagogy characterised by mutual respect and social support (PP12) between teacher and among students which appeared to be successful as the students were encouraged to generate Japanese language accurately (O-g-v, O-g-s).

Sample 23: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 12 (social support) while developing Communicative Language Ability through vocabulary and syntax (O-g-v and O-g-s)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
161	S2	Kau koto ga suki desu	I like to buy	R		
162	T	Very good. yes please.. yes	Very good. yes please.. yes	E, I	O-g-v	12
163	S9	Watashi wa skateboarding o suru. Koto. ga suki desu	I like..skateboarding	R		
164	T	Yes. Hai	Yes. yes	E, I	O-g-s	12

Benjiro May 2

Communicative Use of Metaphor at the Third Turn

Communicative approaches to second language teaching incorporate writing as one of the four macroskills. In the following exchanges shown in Sample 24, Teacher Benjiro was aiming to help students develop their writing skills and revise syntax rules. He used metaphor feedback in English in the follow-up turn in response to an earlier question from a student about drawing characters in a writing exercise. His story-line narrative provided a metaphoric dimension to the Japanese character script, in helping students develop textual competence (O-t-r) and a strategy (Str-plan) for planning to read Japanese character. There was potential for using the students’ background knowledge (PP8) to realise the formation of known as snowflakes to greater effect but this was not clearly realised in the exchange.

Sample 24: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 8 (background knowledge) while developing Communicative Language Ability through textual rhetorical organisation (O-t-r) and Strategy (Planning)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
------	------	------------------	-------------	------	-----	----

288	T	[JUST. Ok give me a. while you're doing it I'm going to give you a hint..ok?..alright.. Rain. you need an umbrella.. Ok?. Otherwise you'll get wet. OK?. And it's very cold so the wet. Rain.. will be. a snowflake... So rain with. rain comes first. and then snowflake later. OK? And ah. Fine weather. Definitely have to see. The sun shine. The sun shine.	[JUST. Ok give me a. while you're doing it I'm going to give you a hint..ok?..alright.. Rain. you need an umbrella.. Ok?. Otherwise you'll get wet. OK?. And it's very cold so the wet. Rain.. will be. a snowflake... So rain with. rain comes first. and then snowflake later. OK? And ah. Fine weather. Definitely have to see. The sun shine. The sun shine.	F	O-t-r	8
289	Ss	(laughing)	(laughing)	R		13
290	T	/I'm not a budda/.. Ok. Now. The winter is very windy. and the snowflakes. very couple a snowflakes. Falling down. Yes.. In spring. Oh it's very nice weather. So it's very warm. So I want to. take a walk. with my friends. So all together. three people. taking a walk. under the very comfortable sunshine..in summer. Oh. the sun is very hot. So. ahh. /there's a lot of/ wet..oh not wet. ah sweat. Sorry.. Then.. autumn..mm. in japan autumn colour is. red..looks fire on the tree...ohhhh.	/I'm not a budda/.. Ok. Now. The winter is very windy. and the snowflakes. very couple a snowflakes. Falling down. Yes.. In spring. Oh it's very nice weather. So it's very warm. So I want to. take a walk. with my friends. So all together. three people. taking a walk. under the very comfortable sunshine..in summer. Oh. the sun is very hot. So. ahh. /there's a lot of/ wet..oh not wet. ah sweat. Sorry.. Then.. autumn..mm. in japan autumn colour is. red..looks fire on the tree...ohhhh.	F	O-t-r	8

Benjiro, April 18

Developing Strategies for Communicative Language Ability

Strategic competence was not taught explicitly. Data in Sample 25 show that before any selected student was confident to take the risk and use the target language, the class needed to have a preparatory set of exchanges available to them. The sequence of exchanges (turns 153-161) following the student-initiating turn 152, provided sufficient target language input for student (Ro) to complete short interactions at turns 160 and 162, and for student Je also to interact verbally at turn 164. Teacher Adele gave evaluative turns in the target language. The elaborations she made reduced in length through lines 155 and 157 to the modelling at 159 when she provided feedback in Japanese and translated into English. There was potential for substantive conversation with (PP4a) with intellectual substance deciding on food to buy for lunch and for logical extension (PP4c) and maintenance of dialogue (PP4b) but this was realised minimally. At the same time, Adele was helping students develop sociolinguistic competence through cultural references (P-s-cr) to the types of lunch boxes that Japanese people take with them on commuter trains and suggesting ideas (P-i-i) for types of food the students might like to choose, and the register to use (P-s-r).

Sample 25: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 (conversation) while developing Communicative Language Ability through sociolinguistic (P-s-cr) and (P-s-s) and illocutionary competences (P-i-i)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
152	S	/what do I say?/	/what do I say?/	[[SI]]		
153	T	Ahh something o kudasai. Please give me....so here's. obentou. Nihon no	Ahh something 'o kudasai' (please). Please give me....so	[[TR]] I	P-s-cr	4a

		obentou. Tabemono.. food. tabemono.. karei?.. karei raisu?..karei?..chipusu?.	here's. a lunch box. Japanese lunch box. food.. food. food.. curry?.. curry rice?..curry?..chips?.			
154	S	/yeah chips/	/yeah chips/	R		
155	T	Chips wa ne..dakara..ah remon ti..remon ti wa oishii ne... tabemono no../?/...hai RoXXX san /?/ Jess san?..../nani ga/ suki desuka? Ne.../?/ hambaagaa ga sukidesuka? (asks M)	Chips right..so..ah lemon tea..lemon tea is delicious isn't it... food's../?/...yes RoXXX /?/ Jess?..../what/ do you like? right.../?/ do you like hamburgers?	F, I	P-i-i	4c
156	S	/?/ (Japanese?)	/?/ (Japanese?)	R		
157	T	/chicken tatsuda/ oishii...nani ga suki desuka? (asks Ra)	/Chicken Tatsuda/ delicious...What do you like? (asks Ro)	F, I	P-i-i	4a
158	S	/don't know what to say/	/don't know what to say/	R		
159	T	Chipusu o kudasai. Do you want chips?	Chips please. Do you want chips?	F, I	P-s-r	4b
160	S	/?/ (Japanese/English??)	/?/ (Japanese/English??)	R		
161	T	Say you want some chips so what do you say?..a a ah ah. What would you say?. Chips. o. kudasai. /you try/	Say you want some chips so what do you say?..a a ah ah. What would you say?. Chips. please. /you try/	I		
162	S	/chips o kudasai/	/chips please/	R		
163	T	OK...	OK...	E	P-s-r	4b

Adele, March 7

As shown in Sample 26, occasionally there was potential for use of metalanguage (PP6). On this occasion use of the preposition “e” appears not to have reached level of conscious awareness in student S10, remaining an implicit correction, so potential was not realised for making the criteria of the exercise explicit (PP14). Students had to guess at the type of sentence construction Teacher Benjiro was asking for: he was however helping students develop skills in morphology (O-g-m) for propositional meaning at turn 529; he was building elements of textual competence by marking semantic relationships in the use of the conjunctions “and” and “but”, with lexical cohesion (O-t-c) associated with ordering old information with new at turns 531, 533, 535.

Sample 26: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage) while developing Communicative Language Ability through morphological (O-g-m) and textual (O-t-c) competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
529	T	nihon e. nihon e. iku koto ga?	to Japan. To japan. Go?	F, I	O-g-m	6
530	S10	ah deki[masu	ah can[do	R		
531	T	[dekimashita. Ok so. you went to Japan and you couldn't do something. Yes [please..	[could do. Ok so. you went to Japan and you couldn't do something. Yes [please..	F, I	O-t-c	14
532	S2	[/you couldn't go to japan/	[/you couldn't go to japan/	R		
533	T	yes	yes	E	O-t-c	5
534	S6	hon o yomu koto ga dekimash. dekimasendeshita.	can read a book. Couldn't.	R		
535	T	very good. How about another.. I was.. not. good at.. something.	very good. How about another.. I was.. not. good at.. something.	E, I		12

Benjiro 6 June

As shown in Sample 27, Benjiro suggested his students should use their background knowledge (PP8) and call on use of a rhyme when they found they could not produce the structure naturally. He was helping students to develop rhetorical organisation competence (O-t-r).

Sample 27: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 8 (background knowledge) while developing Communicative Language Ability through rhetorical (O-t-r) and strategic (Str) competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
548	T	yeah /you totally forgot/ that's why I kept saying. Kept singing	yeah /you totally forgot/ that's why I kept saying. Kept singing	F	Str (plan)	8
549	S7	say it again please	say it again please	[[SI]]		
550	T	i. na. katta. datta. kunai. Janai. Ku.nakatta. Ja.nakatta. Yes please	i. na. katta. datta. kunai. Janai. Ku.nakatta. Ja.nakatta. Yes please	[[TR]] I,	O-t-r	8

Benjiro, 6 June

During a lesson when the class had the task of writing rules for a group of visitors, students took the lead in writing in Japanese and reading out their statements, as is shown in Sample 28. Teacher Benjiro moved from repeating a student's utterance (turn 782) in developing phonological competence to engaging in meaning across the two languages (turn 802). He was helping students to develop strategic use of rules (Str-exec) at turn 784. At the feedback moves in the third turn, there was potential for sustained conversation (PP4) that was not realised and extended use of metalanguage (PP6) in reference to the grammar rule which was partially realised. He was helping students to develop sociolinguistic competence through cultural reference (P-s-cr). His understanding was that the underlying meaning of the term handball among the Japanese visitors was different from the Australian expectation.

Sample 28: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 (substantive conversation-dialogue and logical extension) while realising strategic (Str) and sociolinguistic competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
781	S8	um.. jugyou de.=	um.. in the lesson.=	R		4c
782	T	jugyou de	in the lesson	F	O-g-p	4c
783	S8	=hanasukoto ga ah. Dekimasen.	=you can't ah. Speak.	R		4c
784	T	sou desune. Same rule ne. hai yes any other? Hai	that's right. Same rule right. yes yes any other? Yes	F, I	Str (exec)	6

Benjiro, 6 June

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translation	Move	CLA	PP
801	S7	handobouro o surukoto ga dekimasu.	you can play handball	R		4b
802	T	ok.. handbooru... they is. they will make a mist. ah they will make a misunderstanding =	ok.. handball... they is. they will make a mist. ah they will make a misunderstanding =	F	P-s-cr	6, 4b

Benjiro, 6 June

Natural use of cultural artefacts in the target culture ("realia") was evident in Sample 29. It complemented the teacher's realisation in helping students develop sociolinguistic competence through cultural references (P-s-cr) at turn 212 (Pokki sticks are Japanese chocolate and nut coated

sticks) and naturalness (P-s-n), in using Japanese at turn 216. There was potential for productive pedagogy of sustained exchange in conversation (PP4) but the pedagogy was not realised.

Sample 29: Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 (logical extension) while developing Communicative Language Ability through strategic (Str) and sociolinguistic competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP
211	S	(animates getting money out of pocket)	(animates getting money out of pocket)	[[SI]]		
212	T	Totemo oishii..pokki stick..totemo oishii.	Very delicious..pokki stick..very delicious.	[[TR]]	P-s-cr	4d
213	S	(mimes saying 'pokki' to M)	(mimes saying 'pokki' to M)	[[SI]]		
214	T	Bisuketto..chokoretto.nuts.	Biscuit..chocolate.nuts..	[[TR]]	O-g	
215	R	(nods)	(nods)	R		
216	T	Oishii ..tasty. delicious. Oishii.	Delicious ..tasty. delicious. Delicious.	[TR]	P-s-n	4d
217	S	(Animates wanting to buy the pokki sticks from M)	(Animates wanting to buy the pokki sticks from M)	[SI]		

Adele, March 7

Effects of Types of Question on Realising CLA and PP in Follow-up moves

Display and negotiation question types in teacher-initiated moves in the IRF exchange were identified from the transcribed data and tallied on excel charts. Display questions were those for which the teacher could be classified as 'primary' knower, and students were to answer correctly by providing pronunciation and word choice that the teacher expected. On occasions display questions required students to guess the teacher's preferred answer.

Negotiation questions were those for which the teacher was a 'secondary knower', the content of the answer was not necessarily known by the teacher when the question was posed. Negotiation questions were considered as two types: personal negotiation and elaborated/open negotiation. A personal negotiation question required a student to provide a personal preference, attitude, like or dislike, or a personally relevant response for which there was no single correct answer. An elaborated/open negotiation question allowed answers from all students. Samples of talk from the study are

Sample 30: Display Question (Disp)

LINE	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT	MOVE	EXCHANGE
			[3 Sequence		/1
40	T	Tegami? Tegami?	[3Letter? Letter? (Disp)	I	/1
41	S4	Tegami o kakimasu	I write a letter	R	
42	T	Tegami o kakimasune	I write a letter, right	F	//1 gestures for S4 to sit down

Benjiro 6 June Part 1

Sample 31: Personal Negotiation (PNgt)

LINE	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT	MOVE	EXCHANGE
			[4 SEQUENCE		/1
50	T	OK ja.. Naniga..suki desuka? Nani ga sukidesuka?	[4 Okay so.. what .do you like? What do you like? (PNgt)	I	/1
41	S6	Um Terebi ga sukidesu	Um I like TV	R	
42	T	Terebi ga sukidesu. Hai	I like TV yes	F I	//1 gestures for S6 to sit down

Benjiro 6 June Part 1

LINE	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT [11 SEQUENCE]	MOVE	EXCHANGE /15
276	T	Nanji ni okimasuka?.. Nanji ni okimasuka?.. okimasuka?..shuumatsu ni..okimasu. Nemasu.. nemasu. Okimasu. Nanji ni okimasuka?..	[11 What time do you get up? ..what time do you get up on weekends.. get up. Sleep..sleep.. wake up get up?.... What time do you get up?... (PNgt)	I	/15 T animates sleeping and waking up
41	S d	Um..ju ni ji	Um..10 oclock	R	
42	T	Sou desuka. Dakara asagohan ni tabermasenne. Sou desuka... mm yum.. Watashi wa Dawn san no uchi ni ikimasu.	Really. Therefore you don't eat breakfast do you.. really.. mm yum I want to go to Dawn's house	F I	//15 T laughs and looks at Dawns work. Students laugh

Adele 18 May

Sample 32: Elaborated Negotiation (EINgt)

LINE	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT [2 SEQUENCE]	MOVE	EXCHANGE /1
13	T	OK. Did you understand the past tense?	[2 Okay Did you understand the past tense? (EINgt)	I	/1
14	Sa	Ya	Ya	R	
15	Sb	Yes Sir	Yes Sir	R	
16	Sc	/Na is kunai/and ii is kunai	/'na' is not/ and 'ii' is not	R	
17	T	Mmm No this is negative ne. that's not..	Mmm No this is negative ne. that's not..	F	//1

Benjiro May 2

LINE	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIBED TEXT	TRANSLATED TEXT [4 SEQUENCE]	MOVE	EXCHANGE /7
104	T	Mothers Day no tabemono ne... dare ga? dare ga? ...dare ga mothers day ni..dare ga mothers day ni tabermono o tsukurimasuka? Tabemono o tsukurimasuka? mothers day ni?...	[4 It's Mothers Day food isnt it. .. Who? Who?...For Mothers Day who.. who is making food for Mothers Day? Are you making any food ..for Mothers Day?.... (EINgt)	I	/7 Students laughing; T directs question to class and then to a group of students
105	S1	/dessert/	/dessert/	R	
106	S2	chocolate	chocolate	R	
107	T	You made chocolate for mothers day?	You made chocolate for mothers day?	F (I)	//7

Adele May 11

Question Types and Teacher Feedback Moves

Realisation of supporting communicative language ability by question type

Data derived from analysis of question types were used to compare question type with follow-up moves which were inferred by the researcher to realise a teacher's attention to communicative language ability in students.

Figure 11 shows proportion of communicative language ability support to students following display questions, personal negotiated questions and elaborated negotiation questions. From data based on Benjiro making nearly four times as many feedback moves as Adele (314 compared with 84), organisational competence was supported in teachers' feedback most when they posed display questions 64% (Adele) and 54% (Benjiro). Pragmatic competence was supported more by

elaborated and personal negotiation questions 64% (Adele) and 72% (Benjiro) than display questions. There was no clear pattern of types of questions and feedback moves supporting strategic competence in the few samples provided in the data.

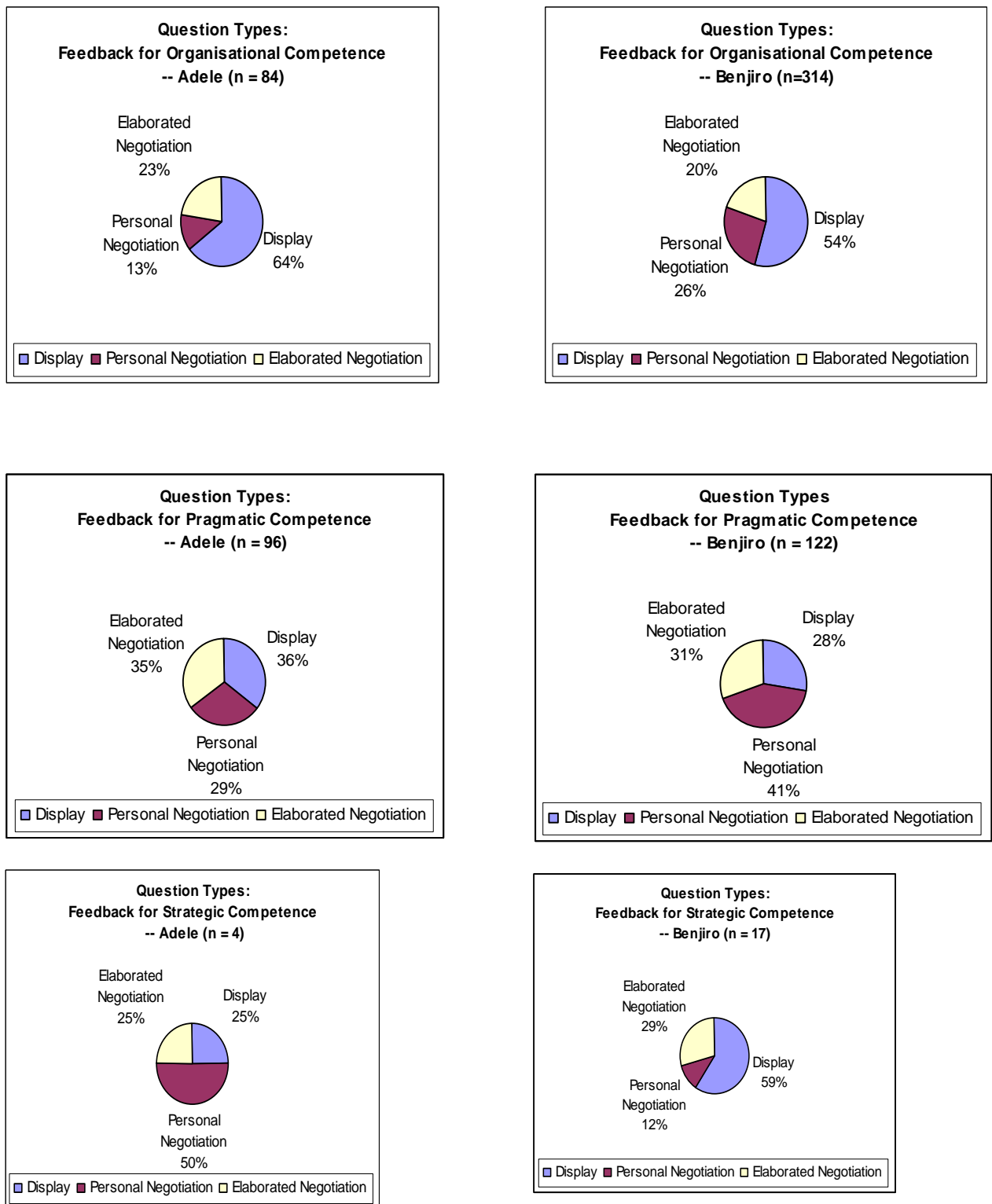
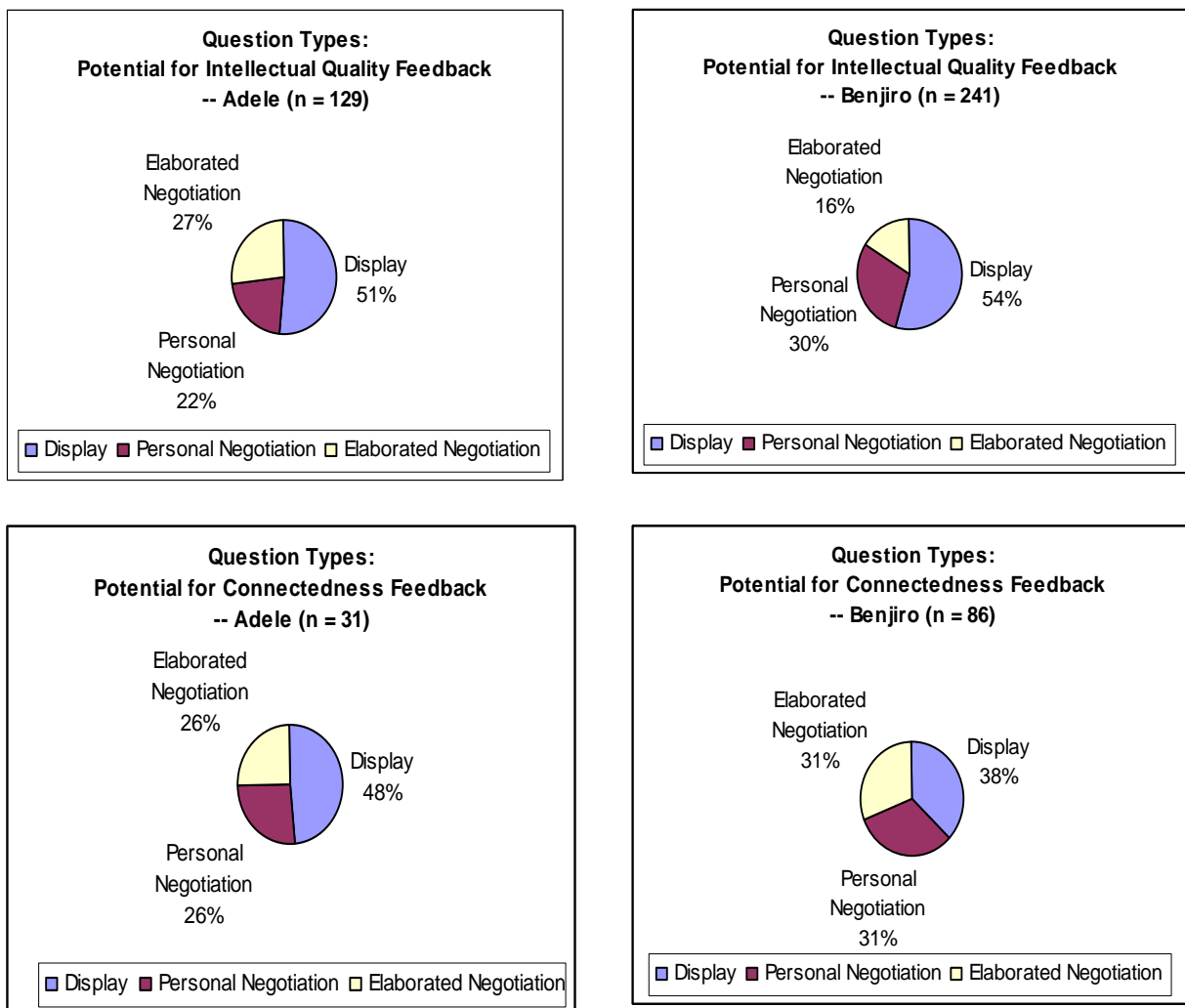


Figure 11 – Relationship between question type and support of CLA development

Potential for productive pedagogies by question type

Question types were compared for the follow-up generated that indicated potential for productive pedagogies. When teachers posed display questions feedback moves were regularly matched with potential for productive pedagogy (1) intellectual quality, often maintaining substantive conversation and use of metalanguage. Benjiro’s personal negotiation questions more often prompted intellectual quality feedback than elaborated negotiation moves. Feedback with potential for connectedness to real world was initiated by display questions from Adele as much as negotiation questions, whereas Benjiro’s use of questions resulted from all three types of questions. Feedback with potential for a supportive classroom environment was as likely to be from display questions as negotiation, and recognition of difference had few instances for any specific trend to be noticed.

Figure 12 shows proportion of inferred potential for productive pedagogies following display questions, personal negotiated questions and elaborated negotiation questions



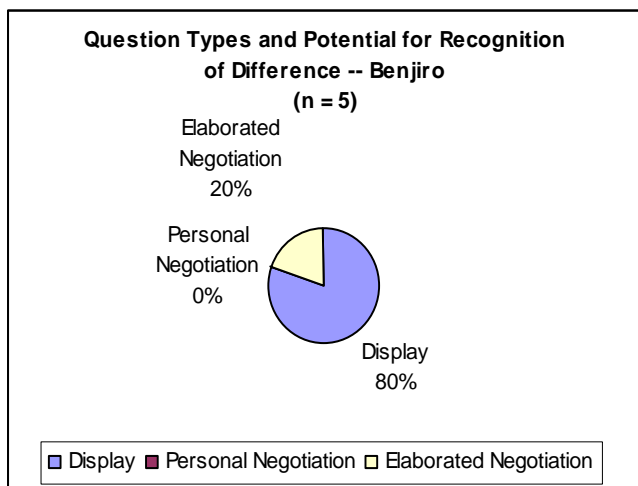
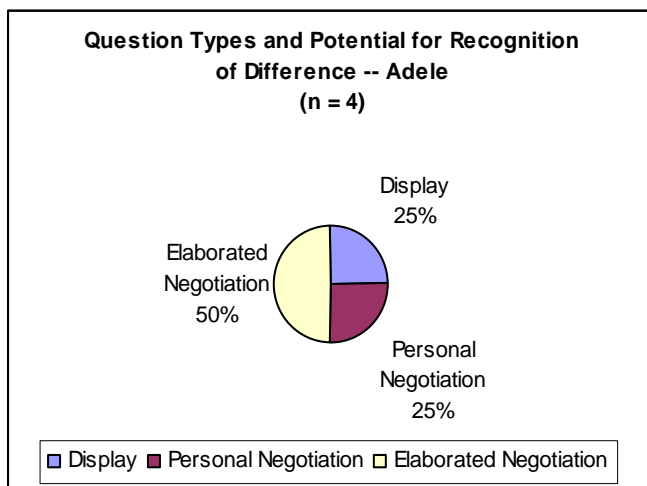
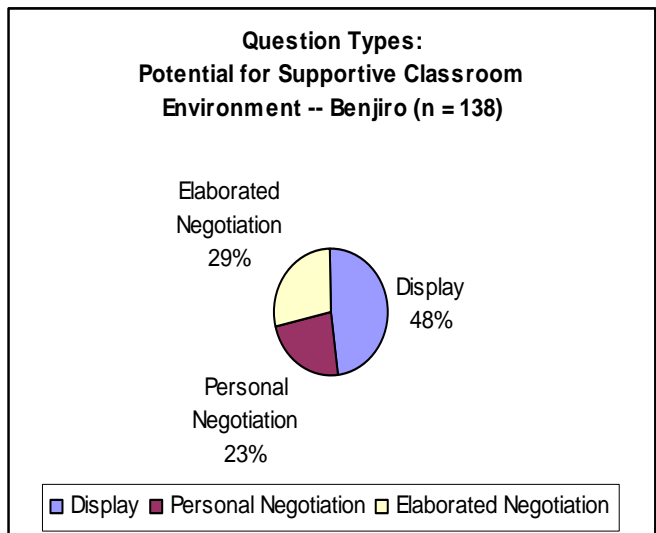
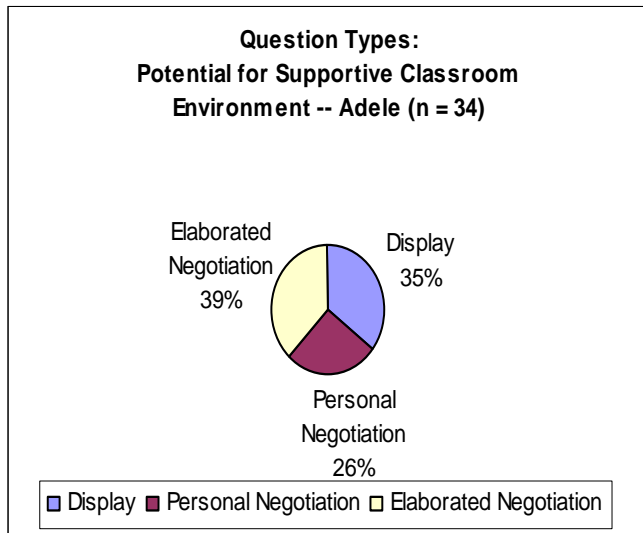


Figure 12 – Relationship between question type and potential use of productive pedagogies

Student-initiated moves

Communicative competency

When students initiated a move during a third turn or immediately following one, a similar pattern of teacher feedback in support of communicative language ability occurred as happened with teacher initiated IRE/F exchanges. Pragmatic competence development illustrated in Figure 13 showed a slightly higher emphasis in Adele's classes, 55% of feedback (compared with 53% in teacher-initiated exchanges) than organisational competence, 42% of the feedback (compared with 45% from teacher-initiated exchanges) from 144 response moves (compared with 199 moves).

Benjiro's feedback to student-initiated moves reflected the tendency he had demonstrated in teacher-initiated IRE/F exchanges. He provided feedback support more often for developing

organisational competence, 53% of feedback (compared with 70% in teacher-initiated exchanges) than pragmatic competence, 42% of feedback (compared with 27% in teacher-initiated exchanges from 172 moves (compared with 491 moves). When students initiated moves there was more similarity in the types of feedback the teacher delivered than when he initiated IRE/F exchanges.

The data indicated therefore that Benjiro provided a higher proportion of interaction with students in helping them to develop use of language structures than implication of language meaning and he achieved that result most obviously when he initiated the IRE/F exchanges. Students managed to gain a more equitable share of support for both organisational and pragmatic competencies when they initiated exchanges with their teacher rather than when they responded to teacher- initiated exchanges.

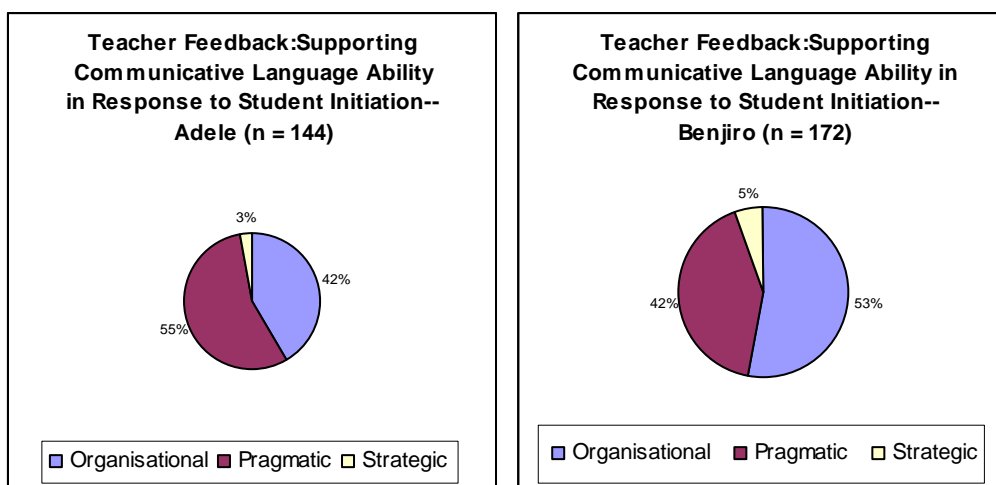


Figure 13 – Student-initiated questions and communicative language ability

Potential for productive pedagogies

Adele and Benjiro responded to similar numbers of student-initiated moves, generating the same proportion (53%) of potential for productive pedagogy in higher order thinking. The proportion is shown in Figure 14. Adele’s follow-up moves provided more opportunities for connectedness (28%) and Benjiro for a supportive classroom environment (26%). Both teachers indicated lowest potential for recognition of difference than other productive pedagogies.

Compared with the potential feedback the teachers offered in teacher initiated IRE/F exchanges (shown in Figures 9 & 10) both teachers consistently provided more opportunities for higher order thinking in their feedback (Adele 66% and Benjiro 51%) than other productive pedagogies. Benjiro showed potential for similar proportion of supportive classroom environment and connectedness (compared with 30% and 18% from 533 moves in teacher-initiated exchanges) but an increased proportion of moves that had potential for recognition of difference, 4%, when students initiated exchanges. Adele provided potential for more connectedness opportunities (compared with 14%

from 228 moves in teacher-initiated exchanges) when students initiated exchanges but there were no other specific differences.

The data therefore indicated that teachers had potential to provide the same relative potential for productive pedagogies when students initiated exchanges as when they did, with perhaps added opportunities for supportive classroom environment and connectedness. Students were at least as likely to be exposed to recognition of difference pedagogies in the student initiated exchange as in teacher initiated exchanges.

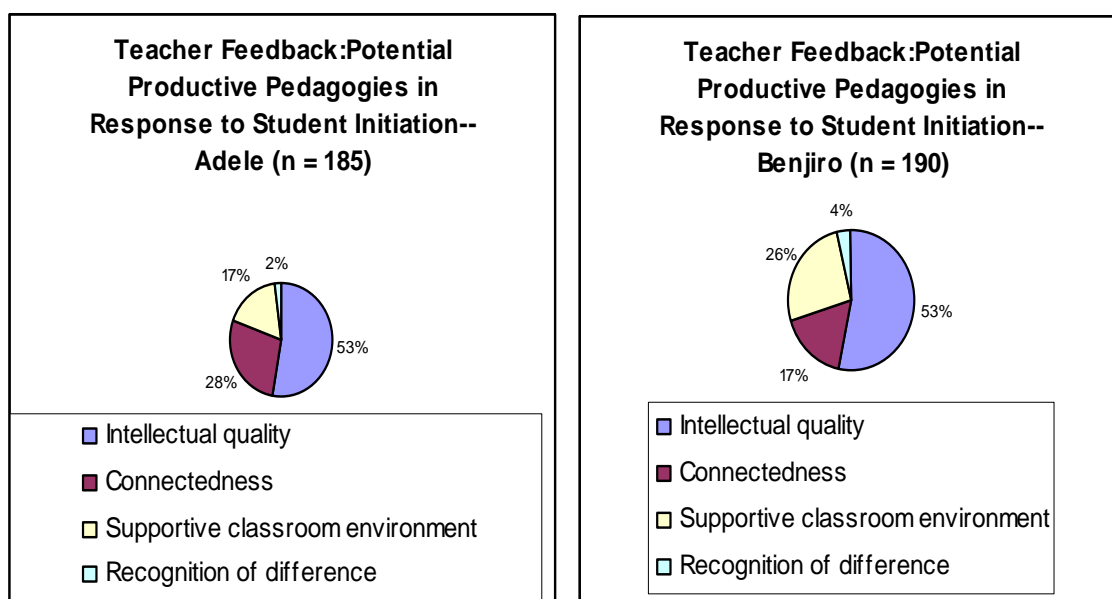


Figure 14 – Student-initiated questions and potential use of productive pedagogies

Membership Categorisation Analysis

Teachers and students interacted within the roles that the teacher allowed to be negotiated through their talk in the essential IRE/F teaching exchange. The teachers' linguistic output in the follow-up moves of the classroom institutional setting was a reflection of teaching behaviour that aimed at students developing communicative language ability. Teacher status, the roles of teacher and student and the language of their alignment is foregrounded in the final section of this chapter as rules governing the operation of standardised relational pairs reinforced the pivotal nature of the teacher's third turn.

Teacher Status

In the classroom, teacher status was evident as controller of turns of talk. The data set of Teacher Adele provided evidence at the third turn of levels of social discourse, since the teacher addressed the students by their first name, and they accorded her the title "sensai", "teacher". That was the form of address used by student A at turn 127. The language produced by student A at turn 129 in

Sample 30 was the first-pair part of an adjacency pair. As a student-initiating turn, it conferred teacher status on the teacher since she had the right to decide whether students were to talk together in small groups in Japanese or in English. Teacher Adele confirmed her status by responding with the utterance to start turn 130 “E.English is alright ok.... but speaking in Japanese”. That response combined with the earlier response at turn 128 legitimised the student-initiated question and instantiated higher status to the teacher.

Third turns also indicated the teacher was encouraging strategic competence, a feature of language ability that is a skill teachers in communicative classes tend to encourage. Ability to ask questions, to seek help or to clarify a point are communication strategies. Furthermore, the teacher’s response at turn 130 was encouraging pragmatic sociolinguistic competence. This reflected both teachers’ preference for students to speak in Japanese, even though they might plan in English. Talk demonstrated in Sample 30 was conducted in Japanese. Potential for productive pedagogy (dialogue PP4 and self-regulation PP15) was evident from the teacher’s turns at lines 128 and 130 but not realised. On one hand she invited students to make a choice of language to use, but on the other she required them to sit down and listen to her.

**Sample 33: Membership categorisation – teacher status.
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 (dialogue) and 15 (student self-regulation) while developing
Communicative Language Ability through Strategic (Str-plan) competence.**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
126	T	Oishisou.....(T talking to class): OK..nifun dake.....	looks delicious.....(T talking to class): OK..only two minutes.....	I			
127	A	Adey sensei?	Teacher Adey?	[[SI]]			
128	T	Yes hai.	Yes yes.	[[TR]]	Str	4b	status
129	A	Umm..nihon /or eigo/?	Umm..Japan /or English/?	[[SI]]			
130	T	E.Eigo wa ii desu hai.. demo. nihongo de hanashimasu.....(T speaks to class): hai.. ippun dake... ippin dake.....(T observes S’s working)..... Hai minnasan. Suwattekudasai.....	E.English is alright ok.. but. speaking in Japanese.....(T speaks to class): ok.. just one minute... just one minute.....(T observes S’s working)..... Ok everyone. please sit down.....	[[TR]]	Str- (plan)	4b 15	status
131		(S’s sitting back in their places)	(S’s sitting back in their places)	[R]		13	
132	T	Hai. Kate san?.. donna mise ga daisuki desuka?.. Donna mise ga daisukidesuka?....	Yes. Kate?.. which shop do you love?.. Which shop do you love?....	I		4a	
133	K	Mm /Jess’s/	Mm /Jess’s/	R		13	

Adele, May 11

Implied teacher status

In the data set for Teacher Benjiro (Appendices 4,5,6) there was no explicit use of social discourse markers in naming the teacher as a cue to the membership categories of talk. Students did not refer to him by name or title. Nor did he refer to students by name. (The teaching assistant referred to the teacher as Jiro Sensei). It was in the repartee, the talk back and forth between teacher and students

that teacher status was acknowledged, and his role in determining pedagogical effects of the third turn was established.

The polite form of an indirect directive given by the teacher to students at turn 417 is shown in Sample 31. It demonstrates how a standardised relational pair (SRP) was established between teacher and student. A student would not make such a statement unless s/he expected to mimic the teacher in a role-play situation. The reference to “full sentence please” indicated that the setting was a language class, and more typically a second language class, where reference to replying in full sentences is more likely than in a first language situation in mainstream classes, where fragmented sentences are acceptable in response to knowledge display questions. Textual competence was implied in Sample 31 at evaluative turns 417, 419 and 423, so at turn 418, student S1 provided the grammatically accurate response. At turn 419 the teacher confirmed he was asking a display question for which he already knew the answer; he was checking the student’s grammatical accuracy before he would move on to the next initiation move. The evaluation “that’s right” indicated that the teacher’s purpose in asking the question was achieved. The status of teacher was clearly established. Potential for productive pedagogy (PP6) in the use of metalanguage, with social support (PP12), giving students the opportunity to integrate their knowledge (PP7) to produce diverse sentences was partly realised as Benjiro helped students in their development of syntax competence (O-g-s).

**Sample 34: Membership categorisation – implied teacher status.
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage) and 12 (social support) while developing
Communicative Language Ability through syntax competence**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
417	T	yes please. full sentence please.	yes please. full sentence please.	E, [I]	O-g-s	6	status
418	S1	furansugo ga. heta desu	I am bad at French	R			
419	T	that’s right. Who can say I’m good at english?	that’s right. Who can say I’m good at english?	F, I	O-g-s	12, 7	status
420	S1	um	um	R			
421	T	yes.	yes.	I, [I]			
422	S6	eigo ga jouzu desu	I’m good at English	R			
423	T	yes. Ok not so bad.. How do you say?	yes. Ok not so bad.. How do you say?	E, I	O-g-s	4c	status
424	S	/heta/	/bad at/	R			

Benjiro, June 6

Evaluative turn 419 was also a feedback turn to student S1. If this talk were natural conversation, S1 might well have expected a follow up question to be directed at him. But in the classroom, such a turn is taken up by another student as was demonstrated at turn 422. S6 gave the correct answer to the display question “Who can say I’m good at English?” This form of turn taking appeared often in the data reflecting frequency of occurrence in the classrooms. A teacher initiated a move and a student gave a response and the teacher evaluated its appropriateness in the follow-up moves of the

third turn turn. The roles of teacher and student were clearly established, even when social discourse markers were not used. On occasions that a student initiated a turn, social discourse markers of teacher and student were notably absent. Yet despite a lack of social markers, the categories that the interactants represented were understood.

Teacher Role - Student Role

The roles that teacher and student play in classroom talk are closely linked to their relative status. At turn 653 shown in Sample 32, student S7 initiated moves by asking a question of the teacher who responded without hesitation. In following a pattern to seek a grammatical rule, S7 held the turn with the teacher until they were both satisfied that the feedback was adequate. S7 worked through his mispronunciation, getting feedback from the teacher and from another student. He kept trying until the teacher confirmed the correct pronunciation.

If the roles of teacher and student had been in doubt from turns 653 to 655, the hallmark of teacher talk was clearly evident by turn 656 in the construction and use of a “directive” speech act “look at this one...”, a sufficient clue to the role of the teacher in this setting. Talk throughout was well aligned, as the students displayed effective rapport with the teacher. S7 used a grammatical term “root form” to which the teacher responded with “conjugates”. Here the student demonstrated he was deferring to the teacher’s knowledge with the question inflection to check the use of “suru”. The teacher adopted the knowing role throughout the sequence, not ending until turn 662 when he confirmed S7’s correct pronunciation. That teacher move had authority, so the student accepted and the topic closed. Grammatical competence in phonology (O-g-p) was signalled at the teacher’s response turns. At turn 654 the teacher’s spelling of a word emphasised its construction with the verb. By asking a question, student S7 was contributing to the direction and outcomes of the lesson, an example of potential for productive pedagogy student control (PP11) had the teacher realised it. By turn 662 there was evidence of social support in the classroom context (PP12).

**Sample 35: Membership categorisation – teacher role-directives.
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalinguage) and 12 (social support) while developing
Communicative Language Ability through syntax competence**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed Text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
653	S7	what’s what’s the word for smoking	what’s what’s the word for smoking	[[SI]]			
654	T	smoking is ta.ba.ko:o. su.i.ma.su. Tabako suimasu.	smoking is ‘smoke tobacco’. Sm..o..ke tobacco.	[[TR]]	O-g-p	6	role
655	S7	what’s the root form?	what’s the root form?	[[SI]]			
656	T	look at this one. Masu form is gone. /i conjugates/	look at this one. Masu (verb ending) form is gone.. /i (verb ending) conjugates/	[[TR]]	O-g-v	6	role
657	S7	so suru? Suru/	so do? Do/	[[SI]]			
658	T	no i.	no ‘i’.	[[TR]]	O-g-p	6, 11	role

659	S7	suu. Suuru. suru?	suu. (incorrect pronunciation) Suuru. (incorrect pronunciation) do?	[[SI]]			
660	S3	just su?	just 'su'?	[[SI]]			
661	S7	su.	'su'.	[[SI]]			
662	T	Yes...	Yes....	[[TR]]	O-g-p	12	role

Benjiro, June 6

Providing sensitivity to cultural references in developing sociolinguistic competence was the role evident in Teacher Adele's behaviour in Sample 33. At turn 292, her utterance <Kitty wa taihen ninki desu. Nihondewa..ninki desu> indicated that pictures from the magazine were of popular young people's culture in Japan and suitable for including in the students' collection of realia for their shops. Identifying with modern culture here and with the traditional tea ceremony (turn 298 in Sample 9), the teacher was helping students develop sociolinguistic cultural skills (P-s-c) and manipulative skills in interaction (P-i-m) as potential for productive pedagogies. This is evident for conversation (PP4b) at turn 294 with potential for productive pedagogy connectedness to the real world (PP9) through the exchange.

Sample 36: Membership categorisation – teacher role – sensitivity to cultural references. Potential for Productive Pedagogy 9 (connectedness to the world) and 4b (dialogue) while developing Communicative Language Ability through sociolinguistic cultural reference (P-s-cr) and manipulative (P-i-m) and vocabulary (O-g-v) competence

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
292	T	Hello Kitty...Kitty wa taihen ninki desu. Nihondewa..ninki desu...very very popular...Hello Kitty shops ga takusan arimasu.... (walks to another group of S's)	Hello Kitty...Kitty is really popular. in Japan..it's popular...very very popular...There are a lot of Hello Kitty shops (walks to another group of S's)	F	P-s-cr	9	Sensitivity to cultural references
293	S	/?/ Hello Kitty ga suki desu.	/?/ I like Hello Kitty.	[[SI]]			
294	T	Aa sou..	oh really..	[[TR]]	P-i-m	4b	Sensitivity to cultural references
295	S7	Kitsu	Kitsu	[[SI]]			
296	T	Ah	Ah	[[TR]]			
297	S7	I mean kitsu	I mean kitsu	[[SR]]			
298	T	Kitsi.. Japanese /?/.....that's a pot. /that would be a pot/ for the Japanese tea ceremony and it's standing in a sand /?/	Kitsi.. Japanese /?/.....that's a pot. /that would be a pot/ for the Japanese tea ceremony and it's standing in a sand /?/	[[TR]]	O-g-v P-s-c	9	Sensitivity to cultural references

Adele, March 7

Alignment - Teacher and Students

The data demonstrated that alignment occurred most of the time as the students and teacher were well synchronized in responses to each other. It was rare to find negative attitude or “paradigmatic opposition” as Saussure (1974) identified it. There was an occasional episode as in the situation below, in which a student may have been stigmatized by the group and considered less able than required to manage “plain form” and “full verb” responses in Japanese. The laughter surrounding

his mistakes was a sign of his error and of the possibility that other students were marginalizing him for his responses. Yet the student continued with his attempts and the teacher encouraged him. This indicates a strong positive alignment between teacher and students. Albeit an isolated instance in this study, that kind of hearing in classroom exchanges can lead to stereotyping and the impression becomes an opposing characterization, and difficult to alter. Communicative language ability in the form of phonology competence (O-g-p) for accurate production of the phoneme “ki ki” controlled the sequence as demonstrated in Sample 34. There was potential for productive pedagogy metalanguage (PP6) through reference to phonetic elements of the linguistic item at turn 185 and for developing a supportive learning environment (PP12) at turn 193.

**Sample 37: Membership categorisation – alignment.
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage) and 12 (social support) while developing
Communicative Language Ability through phonological competence**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
185	T	No you say ki ki masu	No you say li st en	E, (I)	O-g-p	6	alignment
186	S10	Do I? Ok. Ok. Um	Do I? Ok. Ok. Um	R			
187	T	Why /i/ remember you forgot?.	Why /i/ remember you forgot?.	I			
188	AT	(laughs)	(laughs)				
189	T	/don't care/	/don't care/	I			
190	S10	Ok. Watashi wa..kiki o. o	Ok. I..(verb stem of 'listen'; particle)	R			
191	Ss	(laugh)	(laugh)	R			
192	S10	What?	What?	[[SI]]			
193	T	I think everyone /understood that except for right?/	I think everyone /understood that except for right?/	[[TR]]	O-g-p	12	alignment
194	Ss	(laugh)	(laugh)	R			
195	T	Yes?. Ki ki masu change to?	Yes?. li sten (full verb) change to?	I			
196	S	Kiku	listen (plain form)	R			

Benjiro, May 2

Standardised Relational Pairs

There was evidence in the data of rules by which SRPs function: economy rule, consistency rule, duplicative organisation, and category-bound activities (Hester & Eglin, 1997).

Economy rule

The economy rule functioned to make the flow of talk efficient. In the classroom setting, one teacher provided opportunities for all students to engage in the content of the lesson smoothly and quickly. In realising that goal he inserted comments regularly, keeping up the pace. Students made their contribution the desired length, using the teacher's utterances as exemplars, in a relevant, truthful and appropriate manner according to Gricean (1975) maxims of cooperative communication. Valued utterances were those in which the student interacted with the teacher. Any aside talk with a neighbouring student was observed as a rehearsal for the important talk with the teacher. The “cultural logic” of the lesson was realised in that way. Students expected to reply quickly and accurately, without delay.

The evaluative turn “yes, yes” with a directive “Go yep”, with the next initiating turn “try now” within the evaluative move slot, was a common use of the turn by Teacher Benjiro. It was a pro-active communication strategy which encouraged the students to make a spontaneous attempt at talk. The sequence demonstrated in Sample 35 is of a student having to use a strategy in order to take the turn effectively. At turn 440, S1 searched for help with a pause-filler. The help might have come in the form of repair or recasting, substitution or paraphrase. Yet the evidence is that the teacher realised development of strategic competence (Str- exec) at turn 439, prompting the student’s commissive response at turn 442 “sorry sorry I don’t know how to say that...”. This was heard implicitly as a “seeking help” strategy, since at turn 443 the teacher provided the target language utterance needed. Syntax competence (O-g-s) was the communicative language ability being realised in terms of students learning to express a range of dislikes. Potential for productive pedagogy social support (PP12) and for dialogue (4b) were realised minimally in the language and manner with which the teacher encouraged students to use their turns efficiently within the economy rule.

Sample 38: SRPs – Economy rule.

Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 (dialogue) and 12 (social support) while developing Communicative Language Ability through strategic (Str-exec) and syntax competence (O-g-s)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
439	T	yes yes. Go yep... try now.	yes yes. Go yep... try now.	E, I	Str-exec	12	economy
440	S1	um=	um=	R			
441	T	/?/ suki. janai desu.. /how do you/ yes go.	/?/ I don’t. like.. /how do you/ yes go.	F, I	O-g-s	4b	economy
442	S1	sorry sorry I don’t know how to say that..	sorry sorry I don’t know how to say that..	R			
443	T	suki. ja nai. desu.. Go..	i.don’t.like.. Go..	F, I	O-g-s	4b	economy

Benjiro, June 6

Consistency rule

The consistency rule was realised in this study. Students and teacher had a consistent role in their oral exchanges. IRE/F was the usual exchange and it developed typically when the teacher initiated the first turn. So common is the IRE pattern in mainstream classes (Lemke, 1990) that students showed they expected the same interaction in second language classes. Sample 36 shows the teacher helping students to develop accurate use of syntax (O-g-s) at follow-up moves in turns 459, 461 and 463 and affirming the economy rule at turn 466. He reinforced use of a short answer through the manipulative language function (P-i-m) which was within student S6’s proficiency, rather than expecting him to attempt an expression in Japanese that he had not yet acquired (“dunking” the basketball).

There was potential for productive pedagogies in metalanguage (PP6) and social support (PP12) as Teacher Benjiro made reference to complete sentences at turn 459 and reinforced student S6 by praising his well formed sentences. Yet, Benjiro’s statements remained unrealised, as potential for

productive pedagogy. The feedback move did not expand on the metalanguage that the student appeared ready to learn. His support of student S6 did not extend into helping him with the vocabulary item he was seeking, nor the option of a construction and register in Japanese.

Sample 39: SRPs – Consistency.

Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage) and 12 (social support) while developing Communicative Language Ability through syntax (O-g-s)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
459	T	That's right. yes. Your sentence please..	That's right. yes. Your sentence please..	F, I	O-g-s	12, 6	consistency
460	S6	Me ok. Basuketbo bouru o surukoto ga jouzu desu	Me ok. I am good at playing basketball	R			
461	T	Very good. What did [he say?	Very good. What did [he say?	F, I	O-g-s	12	
462	S?	[He likes playing basketball	[He likes playing basketball	R			
463	T	Very good.	Very good.	F	O-g-s	12	consistency
464	S6	I was going to say dunking but then I thought [can't do that	I was going to say dunking but then I thought [can't do that	[[SI]]			
465	S?	[yeah /?/	[yeah /?/	[[SR]]			
466	T	/?/ I don't think so	/?/ I don't think so	[[TR]]	P-i-m	12	consistency

Benjiro, May 2

Duplicative organisation

The data indicated that interlocutors in this study had learned the habit of becoming *duplicative* in their talk with each other through their alignment with the listener. It was a sign of mutual understanding when the schema of context was closely shared and the participants deemed it redundant to use more formal talk. The well-aligned speakers produced fragmented speech, when they were confident that the listener's inferences were synonymous with their own understanding.

Duplicative organisation was indicated at turns 43-46 as shown in Sample 37. Each card provided a stimulus for shared reactions. In contrast to paradigmatic opposition identified earlier, "syntagmatic relations" (Saussure, 1974) occurred when the hearers were aligned with the respondent's collections of characteristics being discussed. The respondent's turn then was likely to continue until she chose to close. Evaluative moves by the teacher had potential for social support, productive pedagogy (PP12) while helping the students develop the imaginative language function (P-I-im) of CLA through interaction, but the potential was not realized in the teacher's language.

Sample 40: SRPs – Duplicative organisation.

Potential for Productive Pedagogy 12 (social support) while developing Communicative Language Ability through an illocutionary imaginary functional competence (P-i-im)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
43	T	Augustsa san?. ni mai. ni mai ga ii desuka?.. (T gives two cards to another S). iidesuyo	Augusta?. two. are two OK?.. (T gives two cards to another S). yes that's right.	I			
44	Au	(Nods)	(Nods)	[R]			
45	S?	kowai keeki?	scary cake?	[[SI]]			

46	T	(laughing)	(laughing)	F	P-i-im	12	Duplicative organisation
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Adele, May 18 [gestured response]

Category-bound activities

“Categorial order in talk” was evident in the data: through reflexive constitution of membership categories, the category predicated its meaning such that certain activities were bound as having special relevance which identified the doer and permitted inferences as to that person’s identity as normative behaviour for that category. Rituals were evident in the transcribed classroom talk.

The teacher’s habit of saying “stand up” immediately transferred to the students as a game with language exercises for which they had to generate a statement themselves that fitted into the language function selected by the teacher. For example, soon after the beginning of a lesson, the teacher had a revision activity. He activated students’ schema for this practice when it seemed they needed some repetition of a pattern or they had forgotten a grammatical rule. Sometimes he decided they simply needed practice at composing sentences themselves. This is demonstrated in Sample 38. The teacher realised an ideational language function (P-i-i) at turn 11, so students had to think of abstract ideas linked to sports.

There was potential for using metalanguage productive pedagogy (PP6). In relation to verbs and nouns associated with sports they played, by turn 13 the teacher had acknowledged the response “I played sports” as an interactional manipulative (P-i-m) function of language. There was also potential for social support, productive pedagogy (PP12). By turn 15 the teacher had acknowledged development of the ideational language function (P-i-i) indicating potential for productive pedagogy (PP4c) logical extension of the topic into sports they no longer played. None of this potential was realised explicitly in the teacher’s language or interaction.

Sample 41: SRPs – Category-bound Activities.

Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage), 12 (social support) and 4 (logical extension and synthesis) while developing Communicative Language Ability through ideational (P-i-i) and manipulative (P-i-m) competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
9	T	Ja..nani o shimashitaka?... Nani o shimashitaka?..	so..what did you do?... what did you do?..	I			
10	S10	Sports..	Sports..	R			
11	T	Hai?	Yes?	E, I	P-i-i	6	category bound
12	S10	Sports o shimasu.	I played sports.	R			
13	T	Sports o shimasune. Donna sportsu?	I played sports right. Which sports?	F, I	P-i-m	12	category bound
14	S10	Ahh..footobouru	Ahh..football	R			
15	T	Footobouru o hai Douzo suwattekudasai...oh shimasu no longer shimasune. Hai	Football yes please sit down...oh do no longer do ok. <i>T gestures for S10 to sit down; waves hand in front of face to indicate ‘no longer’ yes</i>	F, I	P-i-i	4c	category bound

Benjiro, June 6

In the teacher category, Benjiro initiated a move in turn 164 with the turnover signal “hai” as demonstrated in Sample 39. In the student category at turn 165, S15 started the turn with the filler “um” that in this context was a not unexpected effort at attempting the turn, indicative of the risk-taking involved when a student attempts a response statement. In the sequence of turns 166 -179 the teacher adopted the role of teacher in the category-bound activity, guiding the student’s focussed guesses towards a grammatically accepted response. For example the teacher provided the verb “watch” by saying at turn 166 < No no no mimasu. Your word is mimasu.> as a guide to the student to find the correct inflection and < Mimasu? Only one /left/..> at turn 170. Although the student was still not quite correct by line 178, the teacher rewarded his effort by acknowledging that he had brought the two morphemes correctly together, “mi” the derivational and “ru” the inflectional morpheme. They have come together as “miru” even though there was further error in the full sentence construction.

The category classroom student was borne out in the teacher’s acknowledgement by turn 179 “right, right”, with organisational competence using correct morpheme (O-g –m) being the main feature of the segment. There was potential for providing a supportive environment (PP12) to the students and using metalanguage (PP6) by explaining use of the verb forms.

Sample 42: SRPs – Category-bound Activities for grammatical competence. Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage), 12 (social support) and 4 (logical extension and synthesis) while developing Communicative Language Ability through morphology (O-g-m)

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
164	T	Yes. Hai	Yes. yes	E, (I)	O-g	12	
165	S15	Um watashi wa terebi o....um.. suru...	Um I TV.....um.. do...	R			
166	T	No no no mimasu. Your word is mimasu	No no no watch. Your word is watch	F, (I)	O-g-m	6	category bound
167	S15	Mimasu.	watch (full verb, not plain form).	R			
168	T	No mimasu. No..	No watch (full verb). No..	F	O-g-m	6	category bound
169	S15	Ok. Misuru...	Ok. Misuru... (incorrect pronunciation of ‘miru’)	R			
170	T	Mimasu? Only one /left/..	watch (full verb)? Only one /left/..	F			category bound
171	S15	Um mi	Um mi (verb stem of ‘watch’)	[[SI]]			
172	S	Miru	watch (plain form)	R [[SR]]			
173	AT	Don’t tell him..	Don’t tell him..				
174	S15	Mimu?	Mimu? (incorrect pronunciation of ‘miru’)	[[SI]]			
175	T	You say. you could do that yes?.. Mi?.	You say. you could do that yes?.. Mi (verb stem of ‘watch’)?.	[[TR]]			
176	S15	Ru	Ru (verb ending – plain form)	[[SI]]			
177	T	Ru. yes?	Ru (verb ending – plain form). yes?	[[TR]] I	O-g-m	6	category bound
178	S15	Um watashi wa..terebi o miru koto ga...desu?..	Um I..to watch... TV?..	R			
179	T	Right. Right. (writes on board)	Right. Right. (writes on board)	F	O-t	12	category bound

Benjiro, May 2

Overall, category-bound activities in an interaction sequence reflected the social relationship among the speakers. Control rested with the teacher, and activities were bound to the teacher category. The teacher had control of content, use of the resource on the blackboard, and examples that applied to the selection of content he had made relevant in the context and topic of the talk.

Maintaining control over the language resource by talking to a student in the form of an array of questions is demonstrated in Sample 40. The teacher’s conversation was related to the types of sweets available at the role-play shop the students had prepared in class. The teacher initiated conversation by asking a series of questions at turn 44. The difference in syntax structure in the set of four questions was not atypical of conversation when the speaker anticipates that the listener will not be clearly aligned and that the utterances might have to be recast for comprehension. The talk was that of a teacher providing cues for the participating student to take the risk and make a response. Teacher and students sustained limited dialogue in Japanese with potential for productive pedagogy logical extension (PP 4c) at turn 46 with vocabulary item “ame” used by the student and used by the teacher for developing her communicative language ability. The teacher’s feedback move at turn 48 demonstrated that she was developing the illocutionary manipulative competence (P-i-m) with a repetition of the student response. By turn 50 the teacher realised developing the ideational competence (P-i-i), and concluded the teacher-bound activity in the feedback move “You will become fat, won’t you”.

Sample 43: SRPs – Category-bound Activities for pragmatic competence. Potential for Productive Pedagogy 4 b& c (dialogue & extension) while developing Communicative Language Ability through vocabulary (O-g-v) and pragmatic illocutionary manipulative and ideational (P-i-m and P-i-i) competences

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
44	T	ame to chokoretto to dochi ga suki desuka?.. ame to chokoretto wa dochi ga suki desuka? chokoretto ga suki desuka? ame ga suki desuka?	Which lollies and chocolate do you like? Which do you like, lollies or chocolate? Do you like chocolate? Do you like lollies?	I	P-i	4a	
45	S1	Ame	Lollies.	R			
46	T	ame. sou desuka? donna ame ga suki desuka?...	Lollies. Really? What kind of lollies do you like?...	F, I	O-g-v	4c	category bound
47	S1	minna	All of them.	R			
48	T	oh minna minna. sou desune..	Oh. All of them. All of them. Is that so..	F, I	P-i-m	4c	category bound
49	S2	marshmallow	marshmallow	R			
50	T	ahh marshmallow sou desuka?.. omoshiroine. futokunarimasune.	Ahh marshmallows. Really?.. That’s interesting isn’t it. You will become fat, won’t you.	F	P-i-i	4b	category bound

Adele, May 11

Predicate of a category

From the data it was apparent that when students heard “Yes” or “Hai”, as at turns 50, 52, and 54, as shown in Sample 41, they heard the utterance as an evaluation of their response to the teacher’s initiating move. At the same time, they heard that they had completed a spoken utterance correctly. Their response must have met the Gricean (1975) maxim of “quality” “quantity” “relevance” and “clarity”, hallmarks of cooperative communication in terms of correct syntax. When the teacher said “Yes?” or “Hai?” a second time in the same third turn as at turn 50, students heard confirmation that indeed student S7’s turn had ended, and the student poised next to give an answer (S8) had been non-verbally selected by the teacher. He was allowed to attempt a similar utterance using the same correct model.

It appeared that the students were hearing an understanding that their teacher would not elaborate their answers. But they did hear that the teacher was pleased with the utterances they completed. There was potential for a supportive environment (PP12) in which the teacher was developing students’ accurate use of syntax (O-g-s).

**Sample 44: SRPs – Hearing a category (a).
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 12 (social support) while developing Communicative Language Ability through competence in the use of syntax (O-g-s)**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
49	S7	Ah.. Billiard o /suru/	Ah.. I /play/ billiards	R			
50	T	Yes. very good. yes?	Yes. very good. yes?	F, I	O-g-s	12	hearing a category
51	S8	/hon o/ yomu	I read /books/	R			
52	T	/o yomu/. Very good. Yes?	/read/. Very good. Yes?	F, I	O-g-s	12	hearing a category
53	S9	Umm..hai skateboarding o suru	Umm..yes I skateboard	R			
54	T	Yes. Hai?	Yes. yes?	E, I	O-g-s	12	hearing a category

Benjiro, May 2

Further, in Hearing of a category (b), as shown in Sample 42, the students’ hearing of the teacher’s utterance “ie” or “no” at turn 598 was that the syntax was wrong. Their hearing was not focussed on the content of the message but on the inappropriacy of the structure of the response. While the teacher was developing textual competence (O-t) at turn 596 there was potential (PP6) for explicit metalanguage related to the use of the particle and at turn 598 concern for setting the development of syntax (O-g-s) in a context of personal interest to the students. This move offered potential for connectedness to real-life contexts (PP9) and for ideational language use (P-i-i) at the third turn 600.

**Sample 45: SRPs – Hearing a category (b).
Potential for Productive Pedagogy 6 (metalanguage) and 9 (connectedness to the world) while developing Communicative Language Ability through competent use of morphology and syntax (O-g-m & O-g-s) and illocutionary ideational (P-i-i) competence**

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
596	T	surukoto ga dekimasu. Hai.. Ahh Nani o surukoto ga. sukidesuka? hai	I can do (with particle). yes.. Ahh what do you like. doing? yes	F, I	O-g-m	6	hearing a category

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
597	S10	ah soCLAer ga suki desu	ah I like soccer	R			
598	T	ie. Nani o suru[koto ga. sukidesuka?	no. what do you [like. doing?	E	O-g-s	6	hearing a category
599	S10	[oh..soCLAer o suru.koto ga suki desu.	[oh..i like playing. soccer.	R			
600	T	yes. Ok nani o surukoto ga dekimasuka?	yes. Ok what can you do?	E, I	P-i-i	9	hearing a category

Benjiro, June 6

Category in context

The data confirmed that context played a vital role in establishing parameters for understanding that the talk which took place in the classroom (Labov & Fanshell, 1977; Nassaji & Wells, 2000) was inherently locally produced, and transformable at any moment (Drew & Heritage, 1992). An example of membership categorisation being context constitutive is demonstrated in Sample 43. The teacher used the shape of an umbrella being put up in an electric storm as a metaphor to describe the concept of weather to his students, as they were learning calligraphy, Japanese hiragana. Contextual resources were used to make sense of the categorisation in the selected context, including category membership of the subject (the weather), the setting (year 10 Japanese lesson), category membership of participants (teacher and students) and the immediate context of the co-selected descriptions (hiragana calligraphy). Together with the categorisation in question, these stood in a reflexively constitutive relationship or configuration. They comprised a “category-in-context” as the teacher shared a story with the students as a means for them to relate the hiragana shapes to the seasons and their associated weather at turns 327 and 329. He was developing communicative language ability as textual rhetorical competence. There was potential for productive pedagogy connectedness to the world (PP9) and logical extension and synthesis in conversation (PP4c). The students did not necessarily make the connections that the teacher had in mind, so the potential was not realized as completely as has he drawn on imagery that they connected with more readily than the teacher’s connectedness with the metaphor. The students did not have the opportunity to use the target language either in speech or in writing to fulfill the potential of these productive pedagogies.

Sample 46: SRPs – Category-in-context.

Potential for Productive Pedagogy 12 (social support), 9 (connectedness to the world), 4 b & c (dialogue and logical extension) while developing Communicative Language Ability through rhetorical textual (O-t-r) competence

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
322	S	Sun and moon	Sun and moon	[[SI]]			
323	T	Oh	Oh	[[TR]]		12	
324	S	Shh. [Next one=	Shh. [Next one=	[[SR]]			
325	S	[shh	[shh	[[SR]]			
326	S	Shh	Shh	[[SR]]			
327	T	=then. Maybe summer..summer is a little /bit hard/ so we leave /it till later/.. Ok. Ok. Autumn.. you see the fire. on the tree..	=then. Maybe summer..summer is a little /bit hard/ so we leave /it till later/.. Ok. Ok. Autumn.. you see the	[[TR]]	O-t-r	9	category in context

Turn	Spkr	Transcribed text	Translated text	Move	CLA	PP	MCA
		that's autumn... and then three people walk. under the very comfortable sunshine...and then. winter. blowing.. the snow flakes..falling down. It's very cold...RAIN. Well you need umbrella..a little fancy umbrella. =	fire. on the tree.. that's autumn... and then three people walk. under the very comfortable sunshine...and then. winter. blowing.. the snow flakes..falling down. It's very cold...RAIN. Well you need umbrella..a little fancy umbrella. =				
328	S	Oh /three can be	Oh /three can be	[[SI]]		1	
329	T	=and if you put the umbrella. open the umbrella after that.. you. will see the snowflakes later. After rain. After rain. Rain comes first...	=and if you put the umbrella. open the umbrella after that.. you. will see the snowflakes later. After rain. After rain. Rain comes first...	[[TR]]	O-t-r	4b,c	category in context

Benjiro, April 18

Conclusion

The data have revealed that the feedback move was the slot in classroom talk where teachers had a relatively unchallenged opportunity to provide a focus for the purpose of each IRE/F exchange. Primarily, it offered engagement between learner and teacher that clarified a teacher's expectations and provided opportunity to conjointly work with students in developing their communicative language ability. The range of uses available to a teacher in the feedback move of the third turn differed for each teacher and with his/her goals for the lesson and series of classes. The third turn was pivotal in shaping the direction of many features of language teaching. It was reflective of the way the teachers promoted communicative competence in LOTE with their students, by developing their abilities to structure language accurately and provide illocutionary and sociolinguistic meaning effectively. Potential for using productive pedagogies at the feedback move was not fully realised. Where evidence was inconclusive, there was scope to consider its potential, as is discussed in the next chapter.

Macquarie Dictionary (1982), p.492, NSW: Macquarie Library.

CHAPTER 5--DISCUSSION

Introduction

Classroom talk was fundamental to the learning process in these second language classes. Students' predominant contact with speaking and writing in the target language took place within that context. Teachers Adele and Benjiro demonstrated through feedback and other responses to student talk that they were working within their students' "zone of proximal development" as a means of enhancing language learning. Vygotsky (1978 in Wells 1999, p. 24 and Mercer, 2000, p. 141) has described a learning context as "intermental" when thoughts are derived from "joint actions and understandings", where participants learn from their communication with others through their actions. This study examined language exchanges which brought expression to such an understanding of a language learning context.

As Mercer (1995, p. 121) identified for learning content in the first language, talk was "used to guide the construction of knowledge". Students in the current study were gaining access to aspects of intellectual communities of discourse through Japanese that were new for them, and they were learning to function with cultural nuances of second language experiences at the same time as developing their first language knowledge. It was at the third turn in the essential classroom exchange that teachers in the study continued to have opportunities to engage students directly in talk. Usually exchanges were formed by an evaluative reaction in response to a student's previous utterance. It was at that point that potential for collaboration began. Verbal interactions were so significant that they were seen to shape the "living curriculum" (Grundy, 1997, p. 31) such that a student voice became a constitutive force within the talk that mediated and shaped (McLaren, 1989) its reality. Wells (2002, p. 7) maintained that "the kind of learning that leads to development, takes place through active participation in purposeful collaborative activity". Fundamental to the discussion in this chapter was an understanding that there was potential for collaboration through the teacher's third turn in IRE/F exchanges.

The present study was made of teachers who chose lessons they considered to be representative of their CLT practice. In providing typical lessons, the way they used the third part of IRE/F exchanges clarified how those experienced teachers managed CLT. Conversational competence tended to focus on pronunciation and language form. There was an emphasis on oral skills although some effort was made to incorporate written language skills as well into lessons. Discourse competence was aimed at through activities that focussed on textual cohesion and coherence in the spoken word, as these affected how students could infer meaning. Recognition of the relationship between form and genre addressed linguistic competence. Sociolinguistic competence was fostered by way of teacher-managed third turns, as a means of handling how the social and cultural environment would shape speech events. Strategic competence was limited but was stimulated when teachers focussed students on negotiating meaning rather than on accuracy of utterances.

One of the goals of LOTE teachers is to enhance learners' communicative competence. In order to achieve that goal teachers have to create a communicative classroom, one in which "talk" plays a significant role. Purposeful question-asking by learners can generate meaningful talk. There was potential for significant use of the target language as meaningful communication when students were allowed to engage the teacher and others in their question-asking in the last part of the IRF exchange.

Relevance of Moves at the Third Turn

Teachers Adele and Benjiro generated most talk with students from the last move in an exchange. They often used that slot to provide almost automatic evaluation or minimal extension of students' responses, before initiating the next exchange at that turn. So common was their use of the third move in each exchange, as it is typically with teachers, that if they did not take it, talk on task stopped, or alternatively a student took the initiative and started a new exchange. Often the student-initiation move became the start of a new sequence of exchanges.

When a teacher delivered an evaluative or feedback move to a student, other active listeners in the class could judge the accuracy of their ready-planned answers to questions in case they were singled out to respond. They could judge other students' responses for accuracy and appropriateness in register. The third turn was also a means for students to learn how to use the target language and to assess their teacher's orientation to lesson content. Feedback consisted of a range of possible moves by a teacher. These included repair of students' responses, elaboration or other exemplification. Sometimes feedback was simply praise. The third turn therefore had a crucial role as an informing teaching moment.

While classrooms tend to be dynamic contexts, one consistent feature of classroom engagement in this study was a teacher's monopoly of the third turn. Triadic dialogue was the dominant discourse genre even when a more dialogic style of interaction was attempted. Teachers Adele and Benjiro used that slot in their talk with students as a means of eliciting a specific answer or response. Often the required response was pre-determined, or it was inferred, or it had been explicitly stated on previous occasions. When they were asked display questions, students had to respond with a level of prospectiveness that would be rewarded. When they correctly anticipated their teacher's intention in a question, that intention was most often for pronunciation or morphology. Alternatively, when a teacher initiated a question for a retrospective answer, the students' task was to recall content asked previously. This resulted in classroom talk being a series of guesswork exercises. When students initiated a next sequence of talk themselves, they tended to perpetuate a three-way interaction. However, there was a difference. In taking an initiating role, typically they were not the primary knower in those exchanges. They used the turn for a range of purposes in both languages, but principally for further clarification of talk that had taken place in a previous triadic dialogue. Students were therefore ready to explore teachers' implied meanings into further sequences of talk.

Students became adept at understanding their teacher's "doings and sayings" (Heap, 1992, p. 26). They learned to predict teachers' expectations, since these had been shaped by the sequential organisation of previous talk and through turn-by-turn interactions they had together. Consequently, even when the structure of a teacher's initiating move appeared to be seeking new information, students found their responses were heard essentially for organisational competence, in terms of phonological or morphological accuracy.

When a teacher used display-type questions as primary knower (Berry, 1981) in the first pair part of an adjacency pair, s/he was checking a student's knowledge against a known standard position. In mainstream content curriculum subjects, propositional content of responses is likely to be of high importance. From tallies of CLA support talk (Figure 11) and language use samples (Samples 23, 26, 30,31) it appeared throughout the data that linguistic morphology of students' utterances influenced teachers' feedback moves, at least as much as it was the semantic impact of students' responses. Occasionally by way of contrast, when a teacher asked a question as a secondary knower (Berry, 1981), his/her uptake move was less likely to be one of correction because s/he 'heard' the student's response as an informing one which invited the student to continue dialogue (Samples 20, 22).

It was not simply then a matter of students receiving, loading and storing propositional content in order to offer responses to teachers' questions. They had to orient their knowledge to an appropriate register in Japanese and to the cultural context of the classroom. Yet in spite of a raft of potential ways to use the target language at third turns, the teachers appeared to have stock moves ready for evaluation or feedback (Sample 31, 36). They appeared to have a low awareness of potential for their talk as productive pedagogy at that vital turn in their classroom lessons.

There was evidence in data of effective language teaching when Teachers Adele and Benjiro were increasing students' awareness of target language choices available to them (Dixon, 1987, p. 10) and guiding them towards communicative competence. Their efforts demonstrated potential for productive pedagogy in ways they co-constructed meaning with their students.

Managing Third Turns

Certainly Adele and Benjiro used the evaluative move for controlling turns of talk. For with a well managed class they could establish rapport and thus a social environment they perceived was best for enhancing language learning. The context they created with students provided potential for third turn moves that might have led to higher order thinking and towards achieving often complex socio-cultural goals. They needed to be confident that their students in upper middle high school would find that by engaging in longer turns of talk and by including other students in their talk, they would gain greater exposure to the target language in a natural way. Such decisions do incorporate taking risks associated with informal talk in a mixture of the two languages. Teachers have to factor risk

into construction of tasks and talk they encourage their students to use. Potential for language learning is increased when communicative alternatives, such as efforts to sustain conversation through a feedback move, are given priority.

Communicative language use was limited when third turns were used primarily for managing turn-taking, in terms of controlling who was to speak next. Controlled talk tended to reduce richness of language use, and confined thinking to keywords rather than to their conceptual and communicative value. It also reinforced a position that knowledge was primarily an entity to be conserved rather than to be related to, through ideas and concepts that could be understood by meaningful clarification and elaboration. Dialogic ways of teaching which enable discussion should be more highly valued than checking for right and wrong answers, since they allow students to generate language. Adele and Benjiro realised effective teaching through feedback moves in the IRF exchange when they offered students an opportunity to engage deeper and broader meanings instead of second guessing a teacher's pre-conceived answer.

Analysis of Effective Third Turns

Student learning is directly related to engagement with talk constructed in the classroom (Mercer, 2000; Wells, 1999). By assessing how Teachers Adele and Benjiro reacted at the third turn, signposts could be identified which might enhance teacher awareness of effects of language input, such as maintaining student engagement in productive ways.

Effective Moves at the Third Turn

Type (a) effective moves (extended and elaborated moves) provided feedback which showed teachers deliberately acknowledged quality of a student's answer. In so doing teachers valued the student's output. It was good teaching practice for a teacher to build from a learner's knowledge base. By extending knowledge items that had been generated by a responding student, others were more likely to be listening actively to the exchange and comprehending meaning. From a receptive state, they could move beyond details of specific responses to wider applications in other word groups. As indicated in the data, higher order thinking, such as classifying items, could be achieved. Similarly, in elaborating a student response, teachers demonstrated an expanded version of reality in the second language. They took students' ideas and experiences relevant to a topic and expanded the possible level of thinking. They exemplified further and expanded to applications for wider use, such as looking for patterns beyond students' immediate experiences. This fundamental teaching principle was evident, but could have been developed further.

There was a trend in the data for both teachers to evaluate contributions from students more often than they extended a student's answer. This indicated they were more inclined to provide an automatic reaction and less inclined to develop students' language use at that point in their interaction. Teachers Adele and Benjiro extended, elaborated or exemplified a student's turn when they appeared to have their listening audience engaged. (Samples 3, 4, 5) This observation was

taken to imply when students were listening to communicative meaning of a transaction teachers were inclined to extend and elaborate a student's response. They therefore did not demonstrate explicit awareness of the communicative value of sustained interaction as a legitimate use of language in action.

Both teachers occasionally used the third turn to elaborate a point of content. When they did, it was more often to elaborate a teaching point than it was to develop further any underlying meaning in a student's response. Surprisingly therefore, a teacher's practice of elaborating a point tended to reduce rather than enhance the likelihood of dialogue continuing based on a student's response. A plausible explanation was that elaboration came in the form of a teacher's experience, rather than a student's. Teachers related events they had experienced such as a similar event with a fellow teacher or family member, or they sketched a metaphor such as a snowflake. Although students understood, comparisons made were more directly meaningful and part of a teacher's cultural experience than they were shared experiences among students. Also the data showed that English was used more often than Japanese during an elaboration. Given that both teachers were bilingual, they could have used Japanese more consistently and in a dialogic way that enabled students to participate beyond a teacher's elaboration. The more complex an explanation, the more likely Teachers Adele and Benjiro were to use English. Having switched language codes into English, they had to make a deliberate attempt to switch back to Japanese spoken language. This was evident particularly when they were switching between Japanese and English in writing on the board.

Type (b) effective feedback moves in third turns were those in which teachers proposed an alteration to a student's response. Having heard an adjustment to his/her utterance, a student subsequently succeeded in changing message or form of an utterance. Pronunciation, vocabulary and syntax choices were typical types of repair evoked by effective moves of this type. A move was considered effective when a teacher was careful that reformulated syntax and recast ideas did not alter a student's intended meaning but allowed him/her to continue participating on the current theme. It was not uncommon however for both teachers to repair a student's response as an end in itself, and not allow him/her to pursue current dialogue. Such instances demonstrated that teachers perceive communicative language ability as accurate target language use, in preference to fluency. On occasions, students took over the third turn themselves, and began a new sequence of exchanges, often to clarify a point such as grammar, or other organisational competence issues.

Type (c) effective moves showed that teachers drew attention to a student's response, usually an error. Often teachers evoked a class reaction by giving dramatic feedback, with utterances such as exclamations, or exaggerated repetitions of an error in questioning. Invariably, shared class correction followed quickly and in a constructive way and this reduced redundant teacher talk.

Type (d) effective moves were third turns taken over by students. Sometimes at a transitionally relevant place, a student would ask a question. When a teacher considered it a relevant query, and timing was convenient, a student would be granted satisfaction, having his/her initiating move

responded to by a teacher. Moves tended to be short and queries quickly resolved. In a student-initiated move such as “What’s nihiki mean?” a teacher replied: “Hiki is the classifier for counting small animals”. Another student followed with another initiation: “What would you use for elephants?” to which a teacher replied, “tou” (counter for large animals). With student-initiated moves, teachers became aware of levels of engagement with a lesson, not only by the enquirer but also by other students.

There was an indication of higher intellectual activity among learners when student-initiated moves occurred, particularly when students used Japanese. It became apparent that student-initiated moves occupied any obvious gap in a teacher’s pause following a student response to a question. Those moves also followed a teacher’s statement in place of a series of teacher’s questions.

Type (e) effective moves arose from a teacher continuing to engage a student in talk after delivering a feedback move. Teachers did have to apportion student talk time fairly so that individual students did not dominate talk opportunities. Third turns were considered effective when a teacher maintained talk with a student on hearing them make a competent response to a question, or an unexpected response. Confirming previous research (Dillon, 1979), there was increased potential for discussion when a teacher paused or uttered a statement, in preference to questioning further to start a new exchange. Exchanges however were likely to be short and offered limited sustained conversation even when a teacher gave students an opening. Language proficiency was considered a factor that limited this type of effective third turn, but a feedback move did provide teachers with ways to encourage students to extend their use of the target language. Habermas (1991) has claimed that in a critical-pragmatic classroom, students could be expected to maintain dialogue with a teacher who was providing guided learning in which they also had opportunity for sustained talk in pairs. In principle, there were openings through a third turn for students to learn culturally appropriate ways to engage in dialogue while conforming to institutional guidelines regarding talk in classrooms. Yet, Teachers Adele and Benjiro did not often explicitly set up talk in pairs as a follow-up to Type (e) effective moves. They did incorporate culture into talk in Japanese in an implicit way as a matter arose or when a student deliberately made an initiating move at a teacher’s third turn. An advantage of this approach was that Japanese culture was not marginalised as foreign. The teachers appeared to be making a deliberate action which oriented students towards seeking similarities between the two cultures before they focussed on differences.

One goal of second language teaching and learning considered by Fine (1988, p. 15) was that interactions should sound like natural language. Data in the study showed that students’ thinking was expressed spontaneously and naturally in short sequences of exchanges when they used Japanese. In a Vygotskian sense (1978), context was “intermental” (Wertsch & Toma, 1995), consisting of thoughts derived from “joint actions and understandings” of participants in a constantly reconstituted “intermental zone” (Mercer, 2000, p. 141) where their communication was

being shaped by each other's actions. When teachers continued to engage learners such joint action was possible.

Effective turn type (f) occurred through a coherent line of enquiry. Based on feedback, a student would acknowledge that adjustment was needed to his/her last response to improve its comprehensibility. In following a coherent line of enquiry through talk, both student and teacher established in essence, a new form of understanding about formation of a verb ending. For example, a student used a deductive form of reasoning to express required content knowledge, while providing appropriate register for politeness in giving specific verb morphology. Student-initiated sequences of exchanges were also more likely to occur following effective teacher feedback and were part of more complex development of higher order thinking.

In summary, there were opportunities for language development during feedback moves of the essential teaching exchange throughout the data. When a teacher recognised what was happening to student talk around that turn s/he encouraged students to pursue a guided line of thinking together.

Authentic language use

This study has confirmed studies by Nystrand, Gamoran, Kachur and Prendergast (1997) in the early high school years in the United States and by Lyle (1998) in primary classes in Wales. Nystrand et al. (1997) believed that richer learning environments were possible when teachers used authentic questions, when answers were not pre-specified, when uptake incorporated previous answers into subsequent questions, and where there was a high-level evaluation in which a teacher allowed pupil responses to modify the topic of discourse. Lyle (1998) extended the concept of talk to a view of dialogic engagement in which children were engaged in collaborative talk, expressing their understanding in narrative as a primary meaning-making tool. This dialogical conception of teaching and learning was seen as a liberating alternative to traditional power relationships of the classroom in which a narrow use of IRE perpetuated and tended to reproduce a pedagogy based on transmission of pre-packaged knowledge (Skidmore, 2000, pp. 284-285).

Less Effective Moves

Nystrand et al. (1997, in Skidmore, 2000) described the prevalent discursive norm in their studies as "monological, as indicated for example by: a high proportion of teacher-initiated test-like questions; minimal elaboration of pupils' responses by the teacher; and pupils' attempts to introduce new subtopics being discouraged or ignored by the teacher" (Skidmore, 2000, p. 285). So too in data associated with this study, less effective moves of Type (g) and Type (h) were found.

Type (g) controlling evaluative moves at third turns were considered less effective in generating student talk. Teachers viewed a third turn almost exclusively as an inevitable turn to manage who talked next. Students tended to become despondent when a teacher stopped their turns prematurely. Yet they appeared to accept as inevitable that someone else had to be given a short utterance time to confirm an answer to a teacher's question. Communicative talk for meaning was limited when

display questions were framed. An answer was already known, at least by the teacher. When Type (g) moves were common in a lesson, students' turns of talk in the target language were prematurely limited.

Although rare in the data, Type (h) less effective moves occurred when a teacher's evaluative move claimed without any further explanation that a student's response was wrong. Communication stopped and line of thinking and flow of dialogue were terminated. In such situations, students were required to refocus their attention, and make another guess. No assessment of problematic structure was given nor was a reason for an unexpected negative evaluative move.

In the above set of less effective turns, third turn management realised limited opportunity for students to talk. Quick answers were required as the main form of response. Such use of third turns tended to perpetuate an artificial cycle of interactions in which a teacher closed out talk between himself/herself and a student and among students themselves. Participants depended on a teacher to make the first and third utterance in their formal communication with each other.

Tally of Third Turns - A Contrast

It was expected from analysis of classroom talk that teachers would take a higher proportion of turns of talk than students. Wells (1999) claimed 70% of moves in secondary school studies were taken by the teacher. So figures of 39% in Adele's class and 47% in Benjiro's were unexpected.

A second finding was that both teachers were as likely to produce effective feedback moves in Japanese as English (Figure 6). The term "effective" was interchangeable with "comprehensible" and for a turn to be regarded as effective, students had to interact meaningfully with the teacher. It appears therefore that they could have used Japanese more substantially than they did at third turns. Had they done so, students would have been exposed to the target language at the most engaging points in interactions with their teachers.

Indeed, if they were aiming to help students to develop communicative language ability, the teachers had to endeavour to provide as much meaningful access to the target language as possible. Their learners had to be given realistic presentations of language in use as "authentic language of the real world" (Hedge, 2000, p. 67). Grenfell and Harris (1999) recommended that teachers stay within the target language as much as possible. Genesee (1994) saw use of target language with native-speaking peers as conducive to language learning and as providing students with language exposure in an authentic and meaningful context. Communicative exposure to the target language with Teachers Adele and Benjiro was the closest contact students in this study had to authentic Japanese during the data collection period. Students were reminded that many of them would have contact with native speaking Japanese students in the future, either at school or during a school visit to Japan.

Willis (1999, p. 119) also recognised exposure to the target language in use as vital. She advocated setting student-centred tasks to maximise "opportunities for students to put their limited language to

genuine use, and to create a more effective learning environment". It was Krashen (1987) who understood that in order to acquire a new language system, learners needed exposure to types of language that they would need. So typical features of target discourse communities need to be reflected in students' courses, and by implication those features should appear in language uses in the classroom. Earlier studies (Stevens, 1976) have shown advantages for acquiring language production skills by students who had opportunities for classroom discourse in the target language, even when speaking with other non-native speakers.

Follow-up Moves as Triadic Dialogue in Classroom Talk - The Third Turn

Teachers have made the third turn an automatic means of reacting to students' responses to initiating questions. Typically Teachers Adele and Benjiro managed the turn by acknowledging a student's response. They identified appropriacy, accuracy and sometimes relevance in the same move before completing the turn. Often they provided a bid for another student to respond or for another question to be asked. So consolidated a part of third turns are evaluation and feedback moves that students expect a teacher to give some evaluation of their responses when they hear the I-R in an exchange. They expect to hear an evaluation before any other participant is legitimised to make a further verbal contribution. Students are accustomed to that pattern of communication. It has been part of an enculturation process throughout their schooling.

This study showed that there was potential for teachers to use productive pedagogy that was not realised. It showed they recognised guiding principles that governed classroom talk but they tended to take back the turn either for administrative management purposes or to channel a student towards a preconceived correct answer. A teacher's third turn could have been used to develop cognitive skills and strategies that they had identified, by providing learning outcomes at a higher level than for example, repetition of correct models. (Illustration 2 and Sample text 16)

Certainly teachers have to establish "rules" for talk in the classroom. These become protocols for ways of engaging in the target language. Yet, a desirable level of discussion could have been found that enabled each student to have an opportunity to engage in thinking and expressing content knowledge while developing skills in communicative target language use. Students learned by being participants in ongoing interactions with other students and their teacher. Establishing rapport and acknowledging individual values was a basic requirement for meaningful talk to take place in whole class groups and in small groups. However, overuse of the pervasive IRE/F for checking correct utterances against one model limited students' talk. It also reduced learning potential available to them through talk they had been instrumental in constructing themselves. It was as if teachers were not aware of the potential available in moves that constitute third turns.

Ellis (1984) considered opportunities for language production to be beneficial for second language learning. He claimed that extended discourse in school settings was helpful when discourse was associated with activities that students selected themselves. Even though both teachers in the study believed they used a communicative approach to second language teaching, they rarely allowed

students to make grammatically incorrect utterances without offering some repair. Theirs was a spontaneous reaction as adults in a teaching role (as it is in a parenting role) to correct children for whom they feel responsible. As language teachers they may have reacted as they did to students' errors because they assume that an error would fossilise and become a permanent feature of their target language production. Monitoring accuracy of utterances alone is not a primary goal in communicative language teaching, however. Teachers have to become conscious of power invested in wise use of third turns. By doing so, they might refrain from making their first choice of move one of correcting pronunciation and syntax. They might attend first to a student's meaning. They might more often incorporate opportunities for bound exchanges to occur and so allow other students' voices to be heard.

Teacher as Primary Knower - Use of Display Questions

There were occasions on an initiating move, that a teacher was primary knower (Berry, 1981). The purpose appeared to be to establish a format for class talk and to channel thought and action onto immutable linguistic elements. However when natural language use is a goal, it is unusual for singular responses to be the ones considered most relevant for maintaining interaction.

It was of limiting potential to use third turns consistently as a teaching tool for repeating known material and for acknowledging low level objectives. Students could have been given opportunities to choose repetition as their preferred learning strategy. But when repetition is used as a consistent teaching tool, perhaps as a memory aid, without follow-up practice in communicative situations, its purpose is not convincing. By contrast, when an evaluative turn involved follow-up by a teacher, and was used to ask for extended information, it sustained the sequence and was considered an effective use of the third turn. Nassaji and Wells (2000) used the concept of sequence to correspond to a step in a task. It consisted of a nuclear exchange which set up a series of as many bound exchanges as the participants judged necessary to "complete what was initiated in the nuclear exchange" (p. 12).

Typically as primary knower of grammar in their classrooms, Teachers Adele and Benjiro would nominate next speaker and length of each sequence. Follow-up moves could have performed a variety of functions, one of which could have been requesting further information. Such use of a third turn would have been effective in sustaining a sequence (Wells, 2004). This would have been of benefit to the whole group, engaging them in constructing exchanges together, even with teacher as primary knower.

The data showed that when a teacher engaged in talk as primary knower, students generally had little control over the number of exchanges they were allowed to make. Indeed teachers tended to use the nuclear exchange of a "sequence" (Wells, 2004), as "a step in a task" to enable students to make a correct response and to promote students' memory of correct utterances in Japanese. First, the preparatory exchange established communication about type of sentence construction students were required to generate. Then they used embedded exchanges to confirm agreement of correct

answers, or to repair any breakdown in students' attempts to utter correct constructions. Dependent exchanges were clues or comments made to reach the goal of correct structure. There was little opportunity for a student to justify his/her choice of language form. On infrequent occasions, teachers accepted a student's choice of an alternative form.

Use of display questions was a well-tried method of keeping learners focussed on the pathway to locate a single correct answer. Teachers used a "trawling" method at times, to draw answers from students. They did this by narrowing the range of possible answers until a student provided the required answer. Arguments in favour of this method fail to recognise that it is often an unsystematic means of guessing the single answers a teacher has in mind. A series of trial and error attempts at accuracy can compound the risk of consolidating error.

The data showed that when a teacher promoted student guessing of a preferred answer, s/he became an arbiter of truth on certain elements of language production. In favourable scenarios, students enjoyed the banter of being among those who made correct guesses. However, other students simply did not join in. They appeared to wait for a model of the prescribed answer.

There was a significant place for a teacher to be primary knower, when students were first learning items and when repetition was a favoured learning strategy. But having established a knowledge base for achieving short-term goals, teachers could have implemented broader communicative strategies. They could have incorporated other students who were also primary knowers into a teaching and learning circle. Third turns were of limiting value when used primarily to seek pre-formulated answers. They were more valuable when used to open up exchanges, thus allowing students to contribute. When students could hear a teacher modelling expressions on purposeful topics there was scope for extension.

A sociocultural approach to task completion is quite different from display question techniques. The data did not provide many examples of talk which valued negotiation of knowledge and building concepts. Even with teacher as primary knower of relevant linguistic features such as pronunciation and syntax, learners could have inductively reached an approximation of the desired outcome if they had been given opportunities to try some more examples.

On the other hand, as a secondary knower (Berry, 1981) a teacher could incorporate his/her primary knowledge of language. At the same time s/he could have sustained a student's interest by extending his/her talk in the target language. At third turns a teacher needed to want to hear a student's talk, as an adult does when talking with a younger person, responding to the meaning of his/her message.

Teacher as Secondary Knower- Use of Negotiation Questions

Teachers Adele and Benjiro were accustomed to using IRE. It was the structure for acknowledging accuracy and for correcting student utterances they used instinctively. They focussed hearing students' utterances at a micro level of accuracy, rather than at a macro level of meaning. Often in communicative classrooms, a teacher is expected to be a secondary knower and to hear responses in

exchanges as an interlocutor or talking partner with a student, as one who is communicating meaning. A productive aim of using the target language is to receive and transmit messages and ideas in co-constructing knowledge, as actions that students and teachers do together.

In order to achieve communication, teachers in this study had to be in a position of not knowing the answer to every question. They had to be secondary knowers. Language activities should have been consisted of meaningful exchanges, not primarily or solely designed for accurate reproduction of a particular word or sentence form. Evaluative turns taken by a teacher should have reflected a transaction of information or a social interaction.

Teachers Adele and Benjiro attempted to be secondary knowers on occasions as indicated for example in Samples 21, 26. Unfortunately, often those exchanges were neither natural, nor anticipated by students who had become accustomed to short exchanges in which to find the right answer. However, when either teacher showed signs of being interested in the content of a student's answer, they responded to content in the utterance in preference to the grammatical structure of the utterance. The sequence of exchanges was thereby extended, so invariably engagement in talk with its attributes was also extended. Students tended to acknowledge a teacher's interest and responded with a comment, sometimes in the target language, at other times in English, but there was always a sense that communication was taking place.

Communicative Language Teaching

CLT approaches are so sufficiently broad that teachers claim they are using CLT techniques even when they focus on a narrow range of communicative competences in preference to all components that Brown (2000) says are needed. The data revealed that teacher Benjiro favoured developing organisational competence and teacher Adele provided slightly more feedback for pragmatic competencies. (Figure 8) When they emphasised grammatical features in use of target language for accuracy rather than illocutionary meanings, they were missing making explicit intended hidden meanings of expression and socio-linguistic features that give language its authenticity and appropriacy. Teachers' expectations of how students used target language may have precluded them from engaging in it more than minimally, within the time students were given to respond.

Meaningful communication is understood to occur when participants share information with each other and a teacher. Information sharing goes beyond delivering a well-executed sentence in terms of its pronunciation and appropriacy. It is a means of telling, of explaining a function or of seeking or approving information. This study acknowledges that achieving a communicative environment is a complex process. Not only must a teacher create a learning environment in which there is pair work and group work, but small groups of students need to experience using target language for similar purposes as native speakers. Teachers have to provide a catalyst for spoken and written communication, without controlling the talk. It was expected that as teachers provided effective third turns of talk, the learning environment would become one that was conducive to students generating meaningful use of target language.

The data revealed that highest levels of student-initiated moves in the target language appeared in classes with a high focus on accuracy of language output. These were classes in which students were required to generate output themselves, and in which there was good rapport between teacher and students and among students themselves. Rapport was of the kind that challenged students to speak spontaneously. It was not uncommon for students to initiate a talk sequence by questioning the teacher or by posing a rhetorical question themselves. There was a sense of natural communication as students became engaged in reflecting on what others had to say.

Some classes provided a setting for role plays. These had authentic resource materials available for students to use as they attempted lively and achievable tasks. However, surprisingly, those classes which appeared to have features conducive to a communicative setting did not produce any greater number of instances of target language production than teacher-fronted classes.

Lessons included in the study were those that Teachers Adele and Benjiro offered as typical of their communicative teaching style. The teaching focus was spoken language, but there was little apparent development of register through talk. Further, any writing done by students was to support the spoken word rather than to develop writing itself as a macroskill.

Promoting communication in the classroom

Pause when used by teachers was an invitation for talk to be shared. Its use appeared to promote student talk both in Japanese and in English. A key factor in quantity of talk generated was related to students' level of interest and their teachers' expressed interest in the content of their talk and in their progress. The teachers used their knowledge of the students to encourage talk in the target language. This shared understanding provided a constructive framework on which the teachers were able to promote communication in their classrooms.

Student-initiated moves

The third turn in an IRE/F exchange was usually taken automatically by a teacher. Both students and teacher expected a third turn to be taken, so if a teacher did not take it, a student stepped in to fill the slot. This pattern allowed cooperative communication to be maintained. When a student intervened with feedback or proposed another question, configuration of classroom talk changed.

When a student initiated a question at a third turn, there were opportunities for changes to linguistic structures and to the composition of the next exchange often as a new sequence. Participants' orientation to the topic also changed. Students recognised taking the turn as a strategic option. They engaged the teacher in developing their language skills based on what they needed to know to function more effectively. This promoted communication of meaning in their exchanges, so ultimately promoted their language learning. Allwright (1984, p. 161) recognised the potential of student-initiated moves. He suggested that research was needed to identify the "functions this initiative actually performs, how it influences interaction patterns in the classroom, and effects this

may have on the learning process.” It may then be possible to make some tentative suggestions as to how far some types of learner initiative can, and should, be actively encouraged by teachers.

The data showed students generally had little experience in formulating questions in the target language. Usually they were respondents to questions. So with limited experience in initiating moves, they tended to use fragmented strings, or they switched to English or tended to direct quick questions to their teachers. Those who were successful in taking this turn, for an audience wider than their teacher, generally provided the whole class with longer sequences of continuous talk than when a teacher gave an evaluative reaction. This evidence supports the idea that the third turn is a key feature of classroom talk. It is a space that could be taken more frequently by a student, while still maintaining talk with a teacher as guide and interested participant. When active learners initiate a move, following previously negotiated exchanges, there is potential for effective outcomes. One such outcome was a student’s realisation that a language rule had application beyond the current focus of a lesson.

Group work

Typically CLT involves group work. When students have some training in playing various roles as group members, such as facilitator, resource finder, scribe, follower, commentator, they have an opportunity to further their language development. But too often students are placed in groups when they are under-prepared as group members. So in their effort to generate meaningful talk on a topic of interest to their partners or the group as a whole, potential benefits of group work are not realised.

There was little evidence of task-based group work in which problem-solving was a feature of talk or in which a teacher provided guided input. Group work that was evident was generally rehearsed and presented post-hoc to the whole class. So in those role play activities they had few opportunities to construct meaning jointly with their teacher and they did not often hear target language being used authentically within frames of tasks they were doing. Language they did hear came as a result of their request for translation into the target language. They benefited to the extent they were generating language that was important to them for their group’s goals.

Communication at the Third Turn

Although desirable, it was rare for students to ask questions of teachers. In contrast to the observed role of teacher as primary knower, when a student asked a question, s/he was seeking or confirming an answer. There was at least an element of unpredictability about content and pattern of the exchange. Similarly, for communication to be effected and to be effective, students needed to initiate a next turn and series of turns. On occasions they evaluated or gave feedback to a teacher’s response.

Students could have participated at third turns more successfully. They needed to learn to use appropriate pre-empt signals in the target language as a means of trying to occupy that slot in a talk sequence. They needed to know how to use target language fillers equivalent to English forms such

as “er...uhm”, “how do you say that?” “what I mean is” accompanied by culturally appropriate gestures. Development of strategic competence through communication skills was needed to help students to manage hesitations. Such moves would have reinforced an idea that talk in the target language was a legitimate and authentic way to engage in meaning. Turns might not always have been completed before another speaker overlapped, but students would have experienced authentic opportunities to talk in Japanese. Extended turns would have added authenticity to the communicative nature of classroom talk. However, there were no clear instances of teachers providing students with explicit training in use of strategic skills to overcome gaps in communication. Consequently when a student admitted s/he did not know what to say to continue, his/her teacher passed the turn to another student.

Communicative Exchanges and Teacher's Role in IRE/F

Fostering use of target language is a key role of a second language teacher. Use of language generally means communicating a message and its intent as an outcome of comprehension. Translation is a subsidiary activity.

There were frequent instances of a teacher asking if a student understood, when her/his intention was for a student to translate. Yet students most often interpreted a question for its intrinsic meaning in the target language. For example, they found a teacher's query about the word “weekend” to be quite innocuous when they were ready to elaborate events of a previous weekend and s/he simply wanted a word translation, and similarly with a question about “breakfast”. When they were prepared to talk about constituents of their breakfasts, they discovered they had been asked to provide a word-for-word translation, not engage in intrinsic relevance of the question. Although it is usual for an individual's linguistic ceiling of language production to be lower than the level of comprehension of the spoken target language, the teachers tended to communicate at the students' production proficiency, underestimating their conceptual understanding. Whenever the teachers did respond to the meaning of a student's utterance, the feedback move they provided was an effective genuine reaction in an authentic exchange.

It was expected that a teacher's reaction to a student-initiated move would be genuine, even in role play settings. There were instances of a teacher giving authentic minimal evaluations in an appropriate register in the role play setting of a marketplace where short utterances were common. When making a choice between one kind of soup and another, register was informal. However, on topics such as students' interests, when talking about favourite games or foods, teachers had opportunities to play a role as secondary knower but they did not use these opportunities. They could have extended students' turns and allowed them to develop ways of expressing what they wanted to say but they did not always take it. Had they done so, students would have experienced a different hearing of a teacher's evaluative move than they received. With meaningful construction of dialogue would have come increased opportunity for students to talk. They could have developed

units of language beyond single word or two-word holophrastic utterances in both Japanese and English.

Communicative Use of Metaphor at the Third Turn

Metaphor is an enduring method of teaching language and can be a powerful tool in a teacher's repertoire of symbolic representations. It played a significant part in a segment of one lesson. Teacher Benjiro used metaphor in his third turns when communicating climate details. Weather was a common topic of conversation and was also part written communication. He used symbols that matched weather elements in Japanese, as an effective form of elaboration. Students became excited when they could relate to the teacher's exemplars and they learned memorised expressions through images that he created for them. There were however few instances in the data of a teacher's use of imagery, suggesting that students were being exposed to a limited range of literary devices and that functional language was being given higher prominence. Samples that were identified related to images created in Japanese script about climate associated with seasons in Japan. Students had to draw on prior knowledge of objects that symbols in Japanese script resembled. The activity for some students was problematic since they did not always share the same images as their teacher.

In a communicative language teaching environment teachers have to pay attention to evaluative/feedback moves. It is rare in authentic talk for a listener to stop communication with words like "yes" or "no" and provide no further elaboration. It would be considered unnatural and uncooperative for a listener to provide such minimal feedback to a speaker. In classrooms, teachers have to assist in simulating talk in contexts of natural use of target language so that it is more reflective of an authentic speaking environment.

Relevant dialogue between student and teacher should be allowed to continue in a second language classroom. Teachers should engage in topics that students feel they can contribute to. Students should not necessarily have to give back their turn to a teacher, or have a teacher affirm that their topic is relevant before they can continue. Students should be allowed to acknowledge repair to their responses to improve comprehensibility and to continue a topic of discussion as a means of extending their language output. It is unnatural social behaviour for a participant's turn to be terminated prematurely when there is something further to say. It appears rude when a response is affirmed or negated without any further interaction. Being told who will speak next rather than allowing meaning communication to determine the turn-taking is not a natural way to introduce students to authentic talk.

Developing Communicative Language Ability and the Potential for Productive Pedagogies at the Third Turn

Communication of meaning through a second language became possible when students were allowed to express an intended meaning. When teachers realised language use that indicated helping students to develop fluency in the target language, their IRE/F exchange including follow-up move

was labelled communicative language ability. Students had to draw on intrinsic features of the organisation of the language, its morphology and structure that carried the message they intended. In addition they had to attend to less explicit features of language, to engage in deeper meanings as native speakers do. Because of limitations in their fluency in Japanese, students needed to draw on strategic elements of communication to construct a message. Teachers had to be mindful of the level of communication possible in tasks they devised for learning. They also had to be selective in choices of appropriate feedback they made at the third turn, including an option of pause or of remaining silent. Choices they made required conscious effort rather than reliance on habitual evaluative forms to fill the critical slot in their talk with students.

Communicative Competence

Teachers realised helping students to develop communicative language ability at third turns.

Evaluative moves were made and feedback given in terms of organisational skills. These included grammatical and textual competence, pragmatic skills of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence, and strategic skills of connecting linguistic competence.

Grammatical competence was used as a general measure of linguistic competence. In production of writing or speaking, grammatical components could be measured as absence or prevalence of errors. Teachers identified errors in pronunciation and word forms and corrected them in different ways. They acknowledged correct choice of vocabulary items and use of syntax in speaking and writing. They also paid attention to accurate use of cohesive features in communication as part of organisational competence. Language ability expressed as pragmatic competence included understanding a speaker's intention even when unstated. Associated language functions included ideas and feelings, of getting something done, of memorising aspects of language and of imagination, including humour. This competence also included sociolinguistic awareness of register and natural expressions as well as cultural references and figures of speech, few of which teachers acknowledged in their natural word choice. Strategic competence included communication strategies that assisted a language user to manage when s/he lacked sufficient language. It also allowed thinking time to formulate an utterance. A teachers' attention was more frequently drawn to organisational competences than to pragmatic or strategic competences. This feature of language teaching should be addressed if communicative language ability is to be more effectively developed.

Attention to language form appeared to be a central goal of lessons in the data. Teachers appeared to be primarily intent on addressing error through repair and reformulation. Any response to meaning generated by students was in conjunction with correction. Engagement appeared to be expressed in terms of student involvement in an activity rather than exploration of language, despite an apparent readiness of some students to analyse Japanese language as they were using it.

Productive pedagogy in a teacher's repertoire is complementary to helping students to develop their communicative language ability. Teachers aim to generate meaningful communication within a CLT approach. They engage students in authentic use of target language as a means of enabling them to take responsibility for their own learning. They aim to develop effective pair work and group work and pay attention to language form as the need arises.

The third turn allows a space for teacher talk in Japanese. Classroom protocols associated with instructions could be delivered in Japanese. A teacher's personal metacognitive talk could be heard by students at that turn. As students observe a teacher thinking aloud in the target language, barriers that polite talk may have created, could be broken down. In language teaching, a teacher could engage students simply by talking Japanese to them at the third turn adding to their exposure of natural authentic talk.

Productive Pedagogies

A supportive classroom environment (PP12) was often identified as one of the productive pedagogies in the data. It was evident in situations which favoured their creative use of an IRE construction. Engaging students in the learning process was fundamental to their teaching. They often achieved this pedagogy by indicating they valued a student's contribution. Respect was mutual. Rapport and good humour were also indicators of social support. In such an environment there were opportunities for students to give some direction to a lesson. Teachers Adele and Benjiro also made many successful attempts to relate student background knowledge and previously learned content and experiences to a new learning situation. Real-life contexts were drawn on and this demonstrated a teacher's potential for using productive pedagogy (PP9), "connectedness to the world".

Further, the productive pedagogy category "recognition of difference" includes "cultural knowledges". In communicative teaching settings, culture underpins all language learning since language is a living artefact of culture. There was considerable potential for students to learn how to respond within Japanese culture. How Teachers Adele and Benjiro used third turns often reflected their views on the interdependent roles of culture and language. It is a complex teaching skill to guide students to find a cultural place in which they can make sense of the two cultures they are experiencing (Lo Bianco et al., 1999). The data showed they had some sense of achieving such a goal.

Related to cultural aspects of learning was the use the teachers made of metaphor and narrative as a teaching device. Particularly at third turns, they explored the potential of this pedagogy. They helped focus of students' learning by elaborating a teachable point and engaging students in the learning episode. Elements of storytelling and exemplification all had an effect of putting life experience and imagination into a learning context.

The data revealed there was potential for developing pedagogies related to intellectual quality yet these appeared to be less well explored than those associated with supportive classroom environment. In communicative language classrooms, there is an expectation that substantive conversation (intellectual quality pedagogy) might break out as teacher and students negotiate meaning and explore content selected specifically for developing macroskills in the target language. In order for this to happen, meaningful and purposeful dialogue has to be central to any interaction, even though communication may break down as students reach their linguistic ceiling on a topic. Teachers have to balance a tendency to compensate for student's limited language proficiency and opportunities for students to explore their current language skills. "Intellectual substance", "dialogue", "logical extension and synthesis" refer to ways of handling content of a topic. A communicative environment is one in which language use centres on two main purposes in communicating, either transacting information or satisfying a need for social interaction. These are fundamental aspects of a language class. Intellectual quality also incorporates talking about language and its form, the pedagogy of "metalanguage". Potential for developing this pedagogy particularly when students initiated a topic was an avenue for further development so that students could pursue their inquisitive interest in learning about the nature of language and how their choice of target language can be learned.

The discourse of productive pedagogies in Queensland education has brought a reorientation of teachers' goals to several levels. This includes a need for them to create learning objectives that engage students in the process of their own learning. Three curriculum paradigms that focus teachers and learners on using language to complete a task are learner-centredness, problem-solving and task-orientation. Such moves are commendable. At the interface between learner and teacher there is an orientation towards identifying learning potential through actions and words to construct cognition. When a context for learning is learner-centred or student-focussed and task-based, then teaching strategies become exemplary ways for learners to construct meaning. There is a need to make utterances understandable to others. In a practical sense, learning is measured in terms of attaining objectives and by completing tasks. At the same time students have to use target language to express meaning and complete transactions.

It is axiomatic in sociocultural contexts of learning that teachers start with shared knowledge that students bring to a learning experience. The data showed that often there were wide experiential differences among class members. Teachers had to create a learning environment that drew on knowledge they could share. Samples of realia that could have been shared include pictures of instances of targeted language use, and diagrams of language structures involving samples of text students had constructed. Those artefacts of learning would have allowed teachers to draw on shared knowledge with their students. Teachers needed to have a ready supply of shared tools for use when memory failed, or when a student's absence from class has affected his/her recall of language items, constructions and expressions.

Membership Categorisation

The data revealed reflexive “categorical order in talk” among participants. That is, there was talk that predicated meaning of a particular category that each member belonged to (Hester & Eglin, 1997, p. 28). Sequences of exchanges were identifiable by certain category-bound activities. The two categories of participants, teachers and students, were bound to perform through a social relationship that their talk had established. The category to which an activity was bound held a special relevance for identifying the doer and for permitting inferences to be made about that person’s normative behaviour in that category (Hester & Eglin, 1997; Silverman, 1993).

Teachers Adele and Benjiro occupied identifiable yet different positions within the category of teacher throughout lessons. Benjiro generated a high number of turns, and Adele used group work. The category teacher defined their normative behaviour, and it set limits on activities they were permitted to do by the other membership category, their students.

Teacher Role - Student Role and Productive Pedagogies

Utterances such as “full sentence please” indicated that the context was a language class. Teachers expected students to reply in full sentences more consistently than is usual in mainstream classes in a first language situation. There, fragmented sentences are acceptable in response to knowledge-based display questions. The data showed that teacher status was realised through primary knower status in classroom questioning. In communicative classroom environments, teachers tend to plan their use of display questions for specific purposes. In initiating moves, they try to balance use of open questions for which they do not know the correct answers prior to a student providing relevant transactional information, or they make an appropriate social exchange. They would not expect complete sentence constructions as the norm in students’ spontaneous dialogues.

Teacher status was recognised at the third turn of the IRE/F exchange and his/her authority was then stamped onto that interaction. Whether they were speaking in English or in Japanese, Teachers Adele and Benjiro made decisions at third turns which confirmed their status and determined the role they played out over subsequent turns. Each teacher habitually took opportunities in the third move to decide direction and composition of the next exchange. They gave uptake either as a short or a long answer to a student’s response or to a student-initiated question. They decided either to allow a student to continue talking, or they interacted with him/her. They had to decide whether to continue in Japanese or to change into English, whether to slow the pace or to enliven it.

The teachers used their status in providing uptake. Typically, at the third turn they acknowledged how appropriate a student response had been and then initiated a question move. But a teacher’s question such as “Who can say I’m good at English?” in a third turn following a student’s response in Japanese about not being good at French, indicated the teacher understood his role to be one of seeking grammatical accuracy, not appropriacy in a meaningful social exchange. Given that English was the responding student’s first language, Teacher Benjiro was forcing an unnatural intended

meaning by asking that type of question. Also by phrasing such a question, Benjiro showed how he realised hearing a student's response. His attention was focussed on accurate syntax. Yet, CLT principles emphasise meaningful exchanges among students and between teacher and students. The third turn therefore also provided a space which indicated a teacher's spontaneous priority of roles in teaching Japanese.

While Teacher Benjiro appeared to focus on accurate language use, he also maintained rapport with his students. The extent to which language learning was taking place was attested to by students' target language production in response to their teacher's commands and in their alignment with him. Students displayed effective use of metalanguage in their use of such terms as "root form" to which Teacher Benjiro responded "conjugates". Students deferred to their teacher's knowledge about syntax and pronunciation throughout, indicating his authoritative role in focussing their activities. As one topic closed, the next began. Students were not denied responsibility. They could seek help and they did so by questioning their teacher on task. They exercised a student's role by having a say in the direction and outcomes of the lesson (PP11). This example of a productive pedagogy in the category of a supportive classroom environment was indicative of the potential that the data could reveal.

Creating a situation of alignment was a role for teacher and students together. It promoted engagement and language use. By selecting items of interest and topical relevance for a Year 10 age group, Teachers Adele and Benjiro identified with modern culture in Japan and provided connectedness to the real world. Adele's choice of this utterance < Kitty wa taihen ninki desu. Nihondewa..ninki desu> indicated that pictures from the magazine they were reviewing were representative of young people's popular culture in Japan. These were suitable for including in the students' collection of realia for their shops. Similarly Benjiro showed interest in boys' liking of football when he gave this feedback: <Ha footobouru ga suki desu.hai>.

Standardised Relational Pairs

Standardised Relational Pairs (SRPs) function by rules, known as the economy rule, consistency rule, duplicative organisation, and category-bound activities (Hester & Eglin, 1997). Data from this study aligned SRPs with language use in these Year 10 Japanese classes.

Economy rule

Ways that teachers and students naturally conformed to categories by which they were heard, underpinned relationships that were evident across the whole class and during individualised interactions. Students had developed a repartee with Teacher Benjiro such that minimal utterances initiated the type of talk that was expected. SRP rules were seen to apply as Benjiro interacted with his students. What appeared to be abrupt interaction in maintaining the economy rule was his means of achieving pace in each lesson. He achieved a degree of spontaneity of students' responses in that way, and engaged students by encouraging them to make utterances that were immediate responses to questions he asked and statements he made. But communication was not immediately evident

from the teacher's behaviour under the economy rule, in the sense of exchange of meaning taking place for the purpose of achieving a shared task.

At third turns, the teachers identified norms for applying the economy rule. Generally, when students were engaged in the learning process, and not intent on sidetracking their teachers, they expected to reply quickly and accurately, without delay to teachers' questions. Teachers tend to accept short answers and thus maintain their preferred pace of a lesson. The data showed for example that instead of insisting on elaboration, Teacher Adele asked a student to give a quick answer: < OK... Coppu wa.. Coppu wa.. Sarah san... Ikutsu desuka.....Just a number...>.

The economy rule was used to promote associated learning strategies which accompanied subsequent feedback within an evaluative move: "yes, yes" or "Go yep" especially when it was accompanied by "try now" in that slot. It was a pro-active communication strategy that encouraged students to make a spontaneous attempt at talk. In one observed case, a student's commissive speech act worked as a help-seeking strategy "sorry sorry I don't know how to say that..". The economy rule had another advantage. It allowed students to make relatively short utterances, which made for achievable goals in their use of target language.

By insisting on an economy rule however, teachers fashioned length of time allocated to an interaction before they evaluated a response. Little time was allowed for student reflection. That limitation restricted them from engaging in more meaningful exchanges which communicative approaches to second language learning promote. Short response rates could have been attributed to teachers' expectations that students were expected to generate spontaneous utterances from initiation moves during whole class activities, whereas in pair work and small group work generally more time is given for students to engage in meaningful exchanges within an activity.

Each class has a "cultural logic" that teachers establish. Students have to learn how to participate within rules established in that context. The study data revealed that length of turns deemed reasonable within the cultural logic of their classes had become well established. Students tolerated longer teacher turns than they allowed each other. There were no clear examples of a student asking a teacher to say more in an explanation. Yet there were isolated instances in which a teacher cued a student to provide a longer utterance by repeating his use of "jaa" as shown here: S:<Um> < Jaa> < I'm just trying to think of something.> T:<[jaa> S:<[rajio o kikimasu> T:< Rajio o kikimasu. Iidesune. Ok. Alright..> Even this example conformed to the Gricean (1975) maxim of quantity, which is, saying enough, but not too much, for cooperative communication to be achieved.

One of the most negative aspects of IRE was the imbalance it generated in frequency of teacher-managed turns compared with student opportunities to take and hold a turn. As a result, there was significant teacher control of turn-taking and limited opportunities for students to explore their understanding of concepts. Short turns were frequent and interactions were unnatural compared with talk in contexts outside a classroom environment. Those features of communication are atypical of turns in other genres of talk, such as discussion. It was problematic for students as second language

speakers to propose an immediate response to each of the teacher's questions. They had to take the risk that they were correct, or fail to achieve intended meaning or grammatical accuracy. In natural conversation, repair most often is achieved by reformulation or by restatement in order to clarify meaning. It is rarely applied to correction of grammar or pronunciation, for to do so would be a source of embarrassment to a friend or colleague, and a source of annoyance to a parent or older person involved in talking with a young learner.

Society at large, and school communities at a local level, do allow teachers a certain licence to determine details of the economy rule in their classroom domain. So teachers tend to determine what they consider to be acceptable lengths of turns and number of turns they allow each speaker to take in any given sequence of exchanges. Examples in the data support the idea that the essential teaching exchange enforced an economy rule in classroom interactions. This reduced effective reflective time that students as second language learners had to formulate and generate meaningful language.

One justification however for using IRE is its economy. Membership categorisation analysis foregrounded this observation. Students could rely on at least one consistent variable. Given that a nominated student attempted a response to a teacher's initiating question, other class members could expect a teacher to acknowledge that response. Typically a teacher's next move was an evaluation of that response and often it was accompanied by additional feedback before the cycle began again. When applied in a consistent way, there was a regular pattern of class talk. The data showed that when a teacher elaborated longer than usual within a feedback move, s/he tended to relate the topic to real world experience and/or provide metaphoric allusions and explanations. In one instance, a teacher's elaboration appeared to engage students in writing, making the task less laborious for them.

Consistency rule

Students and teacher adopted a consistent role in their interactions. They addressed each other and made language choices in Japanese or in English with mutual respect. The essential teaching exchanges were consistent. When students initiated moves, consistency was broken. Often they were assertive in the initiating role, and other class members had to accommodate the change in roles that resulted. Through such sequences, students adopted a teacher's role. They tended to maintain short turns consistent with types of turns their teacher made and invited minimal responses from teacher and other students.

Duplicative organisation

Duplicative organisation of talk was apparent in SRPs that teacher-student dialogues revealed. There was an understanding of implied meanings in their communication. Not only were students socially aligned with their teacher but also through their laughter at a teacher's third turn, there was a sense that language was being used beyond functional meaning. Illocutionary understanding was taking place. It was as if a universal understanding was being shared beyond surface locutionary

meaning of the exchange. Laughter also indicated that teacher and students were both amused by the classroom repartée. An onlooker, being unfamiliar with rapport being developed in class, might have felt quite isolated. In contrast, participants showed their awareness of “duplication” through their shared laughter. For example a teacher’s description of a pizza caused a group to laugh. The pizza colour might have been described as yellow, at least the crust could have been described by that general colour, but the simulated pizza artefact Teacher Adele brought to class was a more vivid shade of yellow than in reality. As she brought the pizza colour to the students’ attention, it brought them closer together as they shared the slight irony that their joint understanding allowed even in the target language.

Category-bound activities

Relationships and ongoing dialogue (Jackson, 2004) have a major impact on life (Allwright, 2004) in learning environments, and this is no less applicable in a language classroom. There was a sense of alignment through close-knit group membership that became established in each class. A shopkeeper example in the data illustrated category-bound activities and alignment. As in reality, shopkeepers in a role play were bound to the category of sellers of goods. They created activities in association with selling, as transactions took place. These included greeting customers and meeting their purchasing needs. Communicative language teachers frequently choose role plays in familiar contexts for developing language skills. At first, students learn to express relationships in the target culture as a reflection of their home culture (Lo Bianco, Liddicoat, & Crozet, 1999). Generally, active learners use strategies effectively to enhance their learning. For example, in a role playing situation, they tend to think about an experience in their own culture, while learning expressions by rote in Japanese to enact a scene. The data showed that Teacher Adele provided a cultural complement or contrast to the students’ Australian experience in a Japanese context. She created opportunities for them to play out roles while providing them with hints to enhance their communicative language ability. Rehearsed dialogues occurred in Adele’s classes as she attempted to take students to their linguistic ceiling in Japanese.

Neither teacher appeared to exploit categories far beyond surface level, beyond students’ first successful attempts at correct utterances. Teacher Benjiro focussed on language use within a student’s range. He had students generate talk on a specified topic, or one of their personal choice when he gave them a syntax pattern to follow. They produced individual utterances that came to mind when prompted by a key word, tense or topic on a range of topics. Often students had experienced useful expressions in previous classes when learning other macroskills such as reading or writing.

On the command “stand up”, Teacher Benjiro established a category for action. Associated with that activity was a self-paced game, that became a requirement for interaction. Each student had to generate a unique sentence relevant to a selected topic. Benjiro nominated a verb and range of tenses permitted in the game. He developed systematic collocations for a verb, such as “watch TV”,

that were of contextual interest to Year 10 boys. He chose it in preference to other expressions such as “watch this spot” or “watch the baby” which may have been more appropriate collocations of the verb for other audiences. He realised an aim of expanding his students’ repertoire and enabling them to be extended to their linguistic ceiling. Overall, category-bound activities in interaction sequences reflected the quality of the social relationship between teacher and students. Control remained with the teacher and activities were bound to the teacher category. S/he had control of content, use of resources on the blackboard, and pre-selected content for each lesson.

From their experience with social interactions, students were experienced enough to recognise the range of behaviours appropriate for designated categories of people such as Japanese visitors to the school. They were also familiar with a teacher category as it was expressed by their Japanese teacher. Adele spoke target language and made an effort to reconstruct talk as natural input that was comprehensible small fragments. She was seen and heard as a teacher who would use third turns of talk to elaborate, to reformulate or to simplify a message until it became comprehensible. Potential for productive pedagogies was demonstrated by Adele in that category. She tried to engage students in role play contexts, expecting them to use target language as active participants. There was potential for her to be an exponent of a productive pedagogy (PP9) by connecting learning to real-life contexts.

Using English to be understood was not the students’ only or preferred option. There were instances of communicative language use in which Japanese was the language of negotiation of meaning, and translating into English became a redundant exercise when a teacher could provide comprehensible Japanese. She often removed the need to translate into English by reformulating students’ utterances and her own.

When students heard the term “role play”, the concept co-selected was “act in Japanese” and categories could have been people or objects or events. Those students knew that role play was an activity involving something they did or created in the target language. It involved using a summary of expressions they had learned and would act out. Role play had come to mean “students’ rehearsed acts focussed on a scene”. The data did not show evidence of students transferring knowledge outside the immediate classroom context to broader issues within the target culture. Indeed, when teachers used a third turn to give students feedback, they reinforced the idea that application beyond immediate context was not required. Rehearsed role play was therefore unlikely to produce extended use of target language.

Although both teachers made reference to the importance of accurate use of language when students visited Japan, there was not a sense that either teacher tried to create realistic Japanese cultural context in the classroom. They did not for example provide students with Japanese names or deal in yen as the currency students handled. They did suggest that items students wanted to purchase were very expensive in Japan. Yet they simply took higher prices for granted as if students would add those items to their shopping list rather than reconsider items they could afford in a Japanese

shopping context. Role plays that did occur involved students as shopkeeper and customer handling money transactions in Australian dollars. As students commenced their turns, they listened for a teacher's correction to their utterances. Their hearing of no corrections by a teacher suggested they had completed an utterance correctly. They did not hear there was anything further to add.

Another category-bound activity was a teacher's consecutive use of "Yes" and "Hai". The co-selected concept was "next!". This evaluation move was acknowledgement of their right to take a turn in the classroom context. The use of "Yes?" or "Hai?" given more than once by a teacher was a signal of confirmation. Not only had the responding student's turn ended, but a student poised next to give an answer had been selected by the teacher, and he was allowed to attempt an utterance based on the previous correct model. Although there was no hearing by students that a teacher would elaborate their answers, they did hear that the teacher was pleased with their utterance. They had completed it successfully, and the next student simply had to follow their model to achieve another correct answer.

Category in context

Categories in context were also revealed in the data. Drew and Heritage (1992, p. 19) expressed context as "both the project and the product of the participants' own actions, inherently locally produced and transformable at any moment". So although quite identifiable, a teacher category and student category could have been interchanged. Typically, interchange of roles occurred at an initiating phase of a triadic dialogue. When a student asked a question, as a secondary knower with a communicative purpose it was designed for gaining information, or for social interaction, both natural uses of question genre in social interaction beyond the classroom.

Another aspect of creating context was that most students were committed to language learning, at least until the end of the compulsory schooling years, the end of Year 10. By choosing to study languages at that level, those students were already in a minority of the school population. They had selected, even if unintentionally, the category of a second language-oriented student. This set them apart from mainstream students who did not choose to study a foreign language. Most students in the study were accustomed to their teachers' orientation to learning. They knew their teachers' preferences within conventions of their Japanese lessons. Therefore, by choosing this subject, the students had also created and adopted a classroom culture in which they could function effectively in the elective subject, Japanese language.

At a third turn teachers drew on shared contexts they had established. These Year 10 students of Japanese knew the parameters, and associated responsibilities for learning. They had learned how to be cooperative with others and they were prepared to get on with the LOTE syllabus. Teachers Adele and Benjiro showed they knew their students' limits as they fashioned activities to match their personal views of CLT at the same time as fitting activities within the syllabus. On occasions at a third turn, it appeared they allowed a student to produce language and thinking within a LOTE context at his/her linguistic ceiling. But little lesson time was dedicated to writing as a creative skill.

Writing appeared to be learned as the written form of speech rather than as a significant communicative language skill in its own right that warranted focussed teaching.

Teachers Adele and Benjiro constructed a learning context at third turns. If they valued accuracy of output, within limits of the topics of the syllabus, then at a third turn, talk was fashioned to emphasise linguistic organization. They determined for learners features of language learning to value, such as a relevant semantic framework, with metaphor and illustrations, fitting the students' learning context into that school's orientation to learning Japanese. Talk they generated at the third turn in IRE exchanges was their major point of engagement with students and the place in talk where they established language production expectations.

Summary

This study focussed on parts of moves that offered evaluative comment and feedback of students' responses. The data revealed that it was at third turns in triadic dialogue that a teacher had potential to be a secondary knower as much as a primary knower and giver of information. It was at those moments that a teacher needed to provide comprehensible language input for students to participate. As part of communicative language use in a classroom, teachers should support and guide students at every developmental level (Habermas, 1991) as their language proficiency allows, by creating "slots" (Young, 1997, p. 19) for them to do critical work in their thinking and use of language. At third turns, teachers could be storytellers as competent language users. They could also be supporters of students, intellectual stimulators and facilitators of students' use of language.

It was at the evaluative move in each exchange that teachers in this study had a relatively unchallenged opportunity to provide focus for learning. Primarily the turn offered engagement between learner and teacher. A teacher's personality and his/her goals for the class and series of lessons reflected ways s/he promoted communicative competence in LOTE, either through organisational use of language or intended pragmatic meanings of communication. Potential of third turns for incorporating productive pedagogy into a communicative approach to second language teaching remains inconclusive although suggestions have been made in the final chapter. There is scope for enhancing natural language use by bringing to conscious awareness of teachers the pedagogical power of the third turn. Also higher order thinking becomes achievable within the potential of the students' current second language proficiency.

A teacher's overall aim for a series of lessons, and objectives within each lesson, can be such that discourse between teacher and his/her students is a dynamic which involves participants in joint activities, where "new understandings can be generated and internalised as individual knowledge and capabilities" (Mercer, 2002, p. 141). There is a close relationship between use of language as a psychological tool for organising one's own individual thinking and as a cultural tool for social interaction both in schools and in universities, in preparing teachers for schools. It is incumbent on

Education faculties to enable pre-service teachers and to support teachers involved in professional development to “acquire the dispositions as well as the knowledge that will enable them to play a part in transforming the societies of which they are members” (Wells, 2002, p. 204).

CHAPTER 6--CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Limitations of the Study

This study was an “investigation of a relatively small number of naturally occurring cases” (Hammersley, 1992, p. 185) and in accord with Berg’s (2004) notion of the function of an “instrumental case study”, it permitted some understanding of a problem, not simply an understanding of the subjects of the study themselves. Within the teaching contexts of its two focal educators and their respective classes of students, it provided some knowledge of the phenomenon of third turn, beyond insights about the specific teachers and students who were so closely observed. While it has not, and could not, lead to generalisations beyond the case, the study has been documented in such a way as to permit others in situations they regard as similar in certain respects to make their own decisions about whether any part of the findings and conclusions drawn here might be applied and tested.

An essential boundary of the study is that it was limited to data collected from the transcriptions of six lessons of two teachers as they engaged students in lesson content. The transcripts are extensive and meet concerns of researchers such as Christie (2002) who call for entire sequences of classroom discourse to be examined in order to make meaningful judgements about the value of IRE exchanges. The study is a conversational analysis of audible language elements of the talk in LOTE classes with minimal reference to non-verbal communication. The focus of the study was language generated by teachers and students as an effect of the third turn in the essential teaching exchange, so non-verbal communication has not been taken into account. It may also be that turns other than third turn may have produced similar results to those shown. Additionally, there are issues of whether classroom discourse moves initiated by students rather than teachers might differently affect the nature and outcomes of the three-part exchanges reported in the study. The former of these was not addressed as part of the case, and the latter was treated only incidentally in relation to effects of teacher feedback on students’ opportunities to initiate moves.

Conclusions

Within the context reported for the case, five conclusions have been drawn, namely:

1. Teachers provide more talking space to students than previous literature has indicated.
2. IRE/F is potentially a rich source of target language particularly during moves associated with the third turn.
3. Teachers are not conscious of the role that talk provides through third turns.
4. Quality of teacher feedback as uptake affects students’ language production and co-construction of knowledge.
5. Students can learn to use third turns more effectively for their own learning.

Talking Space

The IRE/F “essential exchange” (Edwards & Westgate, 1994) distinguishes classroom talk from other forms of verbal communication, and as guided talk, it distinguishes second language acquisition from independent language learning. In this study, messages contained in exchanges were generated by teachers and on occasions by students, as an implicit co-construction of socio-cultural and cognitive knowledge in the LOTE curriculum. Conversation analysis (CA) of those moves and a system of membership categorisation analysis (MCA) were the tools that provided the insight into the linguistic context of participants’ talk together. Adjacency pairs between teacher and students framed understanding of how teachers’ second language pedagogies were being realised through opportunities available for students to generate language at the third turn in a co-constructed way with the teacher. The resulting pedagogy can be more productive and communicative.

Source of Target Language

The sequence of moves making up IRE exchanges has become a target of criticism, since it is an integral part of instructional classroom interaction in second language teaching (Kasper & Overstreet, 2004). IRE has become so invasive and controlling of interaction patterns between speakers and listeners that teachers are being warned to avoid repetitions of the recitation pattern. Yet as Seedhouse (2004, p. 73) has noted, Ellis (1992, p. 37) has regularly recognised a role for IRE/F in first language acquisition through parent-child interactions. So its role as a principal trigger for communication in student-teacher interactions in second language learning should not be dismissed. Ohta (2001) has found that in time, language used in a teacher’s follow-up turns has become part of a student’s repertoire of language production. Similarly, when translation was conducted in pairs, students were enabled to cue from each other in task-focussed activities and they learned complex Japanese grammatical structures that way. Drew and Heritage (1992, p. 41) also recognised that in the classroom, IRE provides an essential type of interaction, as it does for children and their parents at home, when they are doing activities for which the core goal is learning rather than conversation. Therefore IRE/F should be used as a resource, as a shared source of the target language.

Conscious Awareness of Third Turn Talk

This study has shown there was potential at third turns in exchanges for productive pedagogies which incorporated developing communicative competences. If teachers are to become more conscious of how focal it is to use language wisely at that moment in their interactions with students, they would develop verbal strategies that provided rich target language options. MCA has confirmed that mutual orientation to each other’s conduct enables teachers and students to shape ways they interact successfully.

Quality of Teacher Feedback and Co-construction of Knowledge

Despite teachers’ general convictions about being communicative language teachers, research through the 1980s and 1990s (Kumaravadivelu, 1993, p. 12; Nunan, 1987, p. 141) has shown that

traditional IRE exchanges were the norm, and few opportunities for genuine interaction were evident in their second language classrooms. Findings of this study supported those from previous research that showed third turns being used primarily for management of turn-taking. However, an additional finding was made in this study. The third turn has a crucial facilitating role in CLT, so it may be important for teachers and teacher educators, and for learners who stand to benefit directly, to be aware of this. The context of this study was spoken text in communicative language settings. It provided rich real time natural talk (Edwards & Mercer, 1989, p. 91) which surrounded interactions of two teachers with their students. From a three-turn orientation to essential classroom talk, key language components that were extracted revealed potential for productive pedagogies and how teachers were helping students to develop communicative language ability. They favoured quite different classroom environments for presenting cultural elements of the second language, and in their individual style they interacted with individual students and the class as a whole by incorporating culture as natural language use.

Talk in classrooms has proven to be a complex phenomenon. Language, culture and attitudes shape learning contexts, so cultural context throughout the study was considered to consist of situations where cognition involved goal-directed action. Taking a Vygotskian view, a purpose of cognition was “not to produce thoughts but to guide intelligent action” (Rogoff, Gauvain, & Ellis, 1991, p. 320). A learning context was seen to consist of a teacher’s verbal contribution to classes. There was a focus on linguistic forms used in situations that had a bearing on the production of further linguistic forms (Fine, 1988, p. 14). Bruner (1995, p. 32) placed “ability to use the language as an instrument of thought” as a rich source of culture. These teachers demonstrated that they were not always clearly aware of the role their talk played in co-constructing meaning with students during their classes, nor of the potential for their students’ to take the third turn.

The study established an essential role for its teachers and students as secondary knowers. In a CLT context, student utterances should be associated with acquiring new information or with social exchange opportunities. In order to enhance authenticity in learning episodes, participants needed to be active listeners, prepared to hear illocutionary meaning in other participants’ utterances, particularly at the third turn slot in IRE/F exchanges.

Quality feedback at third turn moves had a significant effect on subsequent sequences of exchanges in LOTE classrooms. The value of praise and intellectual engagement with meaning in talk should not be underestimated as sources of potential for sustained dialogue between teachers and students. Communication was seen to occur when teachers were prepared to allow students an opportunity to initiate sequences of classroom talk in Japanese, or to follow up efforts in a sustained line of enquiry, where teacher and students co-constructed meaning in their communication.

Potential for productive pedagogies was evident in third turn moves though not necessarily realised in a CLT context. Attempts at conversation were more likely to be sustained when students recognised in a teacher’s uptake some qualitative elements which in context supported their

intended meaning in communication. Teachers focussed on developing organisational skills in the target language when their students generated sufficient language to indicate their intended meanings. There was limited evidence of pragmatic competences or strategic competence being developed through naturally occurring sequences of talk in Japanese. However, teachers did foreground skills associated with socio-cultural aspects of being second language learners in the wider school community.

Effective Use by Students

It is likely that students would benefit if they were to know the power that a third turn in the essential teaching exchange commanded. They would hear a third turn as a category in context, as language that was collective knowledge, jointly constructed by teacher and student, and based on the response given at the second turn in IRE/F exchange.

Active learners are already strategic listeners. They take advantage of listening to other students' answers, by anticipating a student response to a teacher's question and hearing the teacher's feedback, even when they are not explicitly invited to respond in the exchange. Data in this study reinforced the view that students who adopt autonomous learning strategies have a significant potential for learning. The potential arose when students listened to feedback in the IRE exchange. Teachers seeking to test this notion in their own settings might use productive pedagogy to alert students to this potential. Teachers would have to become more aware of their own linguistic output for this practice to be effective. For instance, they would have to gauge the quality of their feedback moves, and whether or not a further initiating question were needed, and if so, what its characteristics should be.

Recommendations

Tertiary educators need to reassess their own awareness of the essential teaching exchange when they are involved in teachers' professional development and in pre-service education programs. It is a rich source of linguistic output and comprehensible meaningful input for students. Those involved in education may extend their knowledge of how versatile three-part exchanges can be when questioning students and providing feedback to their responses. They may become better acquainted with productive pedagogies as a conceptual framework in helping students to develop their linguistic competence. And they might draw attention to relationships between pedagogy and delivery of content within the oral tradition of tutorial and lecture.

Within the constraints of this case study that have been previously outlined, three recommendations have been drawn for those who wish to test the applicability of findings in other settings and with other participants. These are:

1. Use of transcriptions of regular talk. As a tool for raising awareness of turns of talk between teacher and students in a second language classroom context, transcriptions are a means of enhancing co-construction of knowledge particularly at the third turn of an IRF exchange.
2. Realisation of potential for productive pedagogy. As they communicate with students during IRF exchanges in LOTE classrooms, teachers should realise productive pedagogy at the same time as helping students to develop communicative language ability.
3. Flexible use of social categories. Teachers should adapt to role change in CLT settings, and recognise that categories they put themselves into affect their language output and their students' target language production.

Transcriptions

Conversational analysis (CA) techniques revealed significant features of teacher talk at third turns. Not only did CA show predictably that teachers took alternate turns of talk in communicating with students in a traditional way, but at their own discretion teachers varied that pattern. Some students took a teacher's turn by making statements or asking questions when traditionally a teacher would have reclaimed that turn.

The first recommendation is that teachers study a transcription of an extended sample of talk in their own classrooms. They would thus identify patterns of talk which they noticed were repeated and those that they deemed successful samples of exchanges they wanted to promote. For example, they may have chosen to focus on linguistic form of student utterances, and identified patterns of their own talk in relation to students' production of accurate forms. This study indicated that students attempted to use Japanese when their teachers expected them to do so. Also, teachers produced at least as many effective turns in Japanese as they did in English. This finding indicated that the target language might have been used more consistently, and teachers could pay more specific attention to talk they produced that would enable students to generate more meaningful strings in Japanese.

They would focus attention on types of feedback revealed on transcripts that were most effective. They would also consider effects of informative feedback on types of language their students produced. Westgate and Hughes (1997, in Skidmore, 2000, p. 294) suggested that a useful starting point for professional development is to encourage teachers to collect and to analyse examples of talk from their own classrooms. In so doing they might become sensitised to alternative speech genres that are available to them.

Hence within the first recommendation is a suggestion that classroom transcriptions become part of a resource kit that language teachers use for reflection and planning. Co-constructing knowledge which comes from viewing transcripts with a colleague should be available to language teachers. A review of an individual teacher's talk which includes initiating moves uptake, is a resource that would help him/her to clarify teaching objectives and to identify slots that have potential for productive pedagogy. By using transcriptions, teachers would have a greater opportunity to observe

what they are attending to in students' responses to their initiating moves. They could consider circumstances surrounding their interpretation of linguistic meaning compared with accuracy in their students' responses, and they could interpret cues they observed that students needed before they were able to generate culturally appropriate language. They could also see how students' language learning is governed by opportunities they have to produce output, noting how many turns it takes before students can access certain features of talk construction.

Furthermore, they could follow the linguistic and propositional content of sequences of exchanges when students instead of a teacher initiated moves. Ohta (2001) maintained that student-initiated turns in the target language provided opportunities for natural language use through conversational style interactions sometimes more effectively than did IRE teacher-fronted lessons. Teachers would find gaps in their students' ability to initiate well-formed questions. The data in this study showed students were afforded few opportunities to learn to phrase questions through direct instruction by their teachers. There would be gaps also in students' ability to sustain dialogue. But a teacher could recognise a student's concern for making accurate utterances and desire to communicate meaningfully in the target language.

Dillon (1979, pp. 42-43) stated that individual participation in discussion improves markedly when a teacher chooses an alternative to questioning at the third turn. He has further suggested that perhaps there is also a class effect gain. He posed a set of alternatives to questioning at third turns of IRE/F exchanges, five of which can be related to second language teaching classrooms:

1. A teacher can make a declarative statement based on the thinking that would have pre-empted his/her next question. Rather than initiating a question move however, a teacher would make a statement based on the intention of a next question move in the third turn and have students reproduce that thinking statement. This alternative is likely to be effective when a teacher wants students to reproduce that intended idea or form of expression. Alternatively, a teacher could produce pre-question thinking and ask students to comment on it. A third use of declaratives has a teacher re-stating in one sentence what a student has said, that is, by summarising the thinking behind the student's response at the second turn. Such statements would be relevant when points of grammar and pronunciation of utterances are focal to the exchange. A likely result would be student talk that is more "orderly, coherent and educational" (Dillon, 1979, p. 43).

In communicative approaches to second language teaching, it is likely that a fourth alternative is possible. A teacher would provide a declarative statement for a student to respond to directly. Statements evoke a student's response more directly and they are more informative in correcting students' thinking (Dillon, 1979) because students are more likely to expand what they were saying, and teachers can influence a student's knowledge through a statement more effectively than through a question, at third turns in teaching exchanges. Respondents have more opportunity to compare new information with what they already think, whereas a question restricts them to a particular type of answer and limits the extent of their responsiveness.

In order to achieve a worthwhile outcome from this change of practice, teachers would have to increase their awareness of language they use to express thoughts. Teachers make the two moves automatically and reflexively: they do not realise how they manage third turns, nor the language choices they often make repetitively. They need evidence, as a consciousness-raising exercise, such as from a knowledgeable observer who is present making specific notes, or from a transcription of a lesson.

Teachers would benefit also from thinking through their language choice options as feedback and construction of any further move. They should reconsider the credibility of any further questioning or any further move at all, at a third turn. Research on discussion (Dillon, 1985, pp. 113-114) has shown that length of student participation increases two to three times following a teacher's non-question move compared with a question move. Also, non-question moves such as providing a variety of statement forms tend to induce wider class participation than teacher-posed questions which usually confine participation to one respondent.

2. A teacher can restate a student's response from a second turn in an IRE/F exchange, particularly when that response is an important way of thinking about the teacher's initial move. Choosing to repeat a student's utterance verbatim has an advantage of confirming appropriate tonal stress and pronunciation, but it can be problematic. It creates an expectation that only answers confirmed in this way are acceptable to the teacher, and it reinforces a single way to express a view, thus limiting the range of answer types that students can give.

3. A teacher can combine question and statement as a clear reflection of his/her thinking. This approach may overcome problems associated with teachers asking questions that primarily require students to recall basic information with a minimal emphasis on encouraging students to think about what they have memorised (Wilén, 1991, p. 32).

4. A teacher can have peers question each other or make a statement regarding a student response to a teacher's question. This is likely to encourage students to listen to each other and to increase their participation.

5. Finally a teacher can remain silent while reflecting on a student's response. It is difficult and unnatural for many teachers to learn to pause and maintain deliberate silence, particularly for the three seconds or more that is required. So teachers must practise in order to achieve this alternative.

In much the same way that electronic media such as audio and videotapes have for some time been resources for teachers to review classroom behaviour and individual teaching styles, transcriptions also have potential for demonstrating linguistic reality of classrooms. A teacher could follow a transcription of a lesson, by marking sequences of exchanges. Then s/he could review the written text and focus on the discourse as a whole and then on specific elements. This would include linguistic outcomes of third turn evaluative and feedback moves and language generated by students in response to different types of initiating moves noted on the text. A teacher could then choose to

focus on his/her linguistic choices of syntax when communicating directly with a student and identify effective use of modelling or repetition or repair strategies. Then s/he might examine how target language is used as a means of deciding how effectively students were engaged in their own learning process, and s/he could attend to effective ways of co-constructing meaning with them. This analysis could guide strategic planning of future units of work in the curriculum.

With a model such as this one for reflection, teachers could identify key productive pedagogies they aimed to incorporate into their teaching. They could identify how they might realise opportunities for implementing productive pedagogies by modifying their choice of language options. Similarly, they could mark on the transcription, communicative language abilities they recognised as having priority at significant moments in the talk. They could view sequences of exchanges that were co-constructed with students and analyse language input that might contribute most effectively in achieving communicative competence.

Potential for Productive Pedagogies

The productive pedagogies framework offered scope for applying principles to the study of spontaneous LOTE classroom talk. On several occasions potential that was evident for productive pedagogy was not immediately realised in subsequent moves, given that talk is so transient. However, a means of “harnessing” exchanges has been established through transcriptions. Free from the restrictions of pace that speech imposes, transcriptions provide a more permanent record for review.

Teachers might incorporate productive pedagogies more readily into their teaching repertoires if they were aware of particular moves that contribute effectively to students’ learning. By reviewing a transcription of their classes they might develop a means of seeing pedagogy that is productive in their own linguistic output and in the language they guide their students to generate, and that which is not. Importantly, they might be better placed to form a construct of “potential” where opportunities to be more productive in choices and implementation of pedagogy might be considered in retrospect and prospect. The metacognition involved in such teacherly behaviour (Bartlett, 2003) is likely to assist teachers motivated to engage students in strategic learning.

Pedagogies related to intellectual quality include higher order thinking, deep knowledge and deep understanding, substantive conversation of intellectual substance, dialogue, logical extension and synthesis, and sustained exchange. Intellectual quality accommodates dealing with knowledge as problematic, of it being constructed and being subject to change. If teachers were more aware of linguistic potential in their feedback moves at the third turn, they would be likely to make informed decisions in preference to reacting automatically. As teachers reflect on the message that students are communicating to them and to their peers, they would be more likely to change from a habit that provides instant evaluative acknowledgement, to uptake that is more natural and meaningful.

Teachers could make more informed choices to incorporate productive pedagogies into their teaching practice. For example, they could use metalanguage more readily to describe talk and text

about how language works when students seek explanations about grammar and syntax. They could open up opportunities to question constructions of meaning and choice of genre and discourse patterns in speech and writing that affected communicative intent in their students' language production. They could focus on higher order thinking beyond translation such that translation would become one level of thinking, not the main goal of teacher-to-student interactions.

In becoming generators of knowledge, students would be engaged in a learning environment that allowed opportunities to generate language. Substantive conversation between teacher and student would be a goal. Students could form generalisations and make distinctions where previously intellectual substance of conversation may have been limited to recounting facts and procedures. There would be opportunities for dialogue beyond scripted and teacher-directed models of role play, with their own spontaneous use of the target language. As a result of interaction in which students directed comments, questions and statements and selected others to be next to talk, there would be opportunities for logical extension and synthesis. Students could raise questions and engage in higher-order thinking, in problem solving and task development, and produce a sustained exchange in which their contributions led to shared understanding.

Knowledge drawn from other fields in the school curriculum could be integrated into cultural knowledge driven by learning a second language. At third turns in the essential teaching exchange, a teacher would foreground wider social contexts and integrate students' current knowledge from a range of background knowledges.

If teachers were more aware of the role of third turns in the talk structure of their exchanges with students, they might use those moments of interaction advisedly. For example, they might foreground intellectual quality pedagogies by converting grammar correction into metalanguage pedagogy, and into talk about how words and sentences work and about how language constitutes texts. Both first and target languages would become tools for understanding. Teachers would talk about the range of uses a word has and how appropriate it is to change register and form according to level of familiarity or respect speakers must accord their listener. Teachers would be more likely to hear the level of interest their students had in their developing intralanguage, and how rules compared with English. Using the target language to explain forms and as a means of communication would become a reality. It would enable closer examination of how both languages worked. A teacher could accommodate a role as a secondary knower in communicative situations, and be heard to be listening to meaningful exchanges with student class members as primary knowers. Typically, students would have some say in the direction of their learning. They would be engaged in student-centred projects. They could incorporate group work and individual research in which they would assume responsibility for activities and have other students complete tasks assigned to them.

Communicative language ability

Teachers who become cognizant of a role at the third turn to reinforce students' communicative language competence would be explicit in their talk about organizational features of language. Grammatical features of organisational competence such as pronunciation, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology would be discussed explicitly within a context rather than in isolation or indirectly. Whether evaluating a student response or being respondent to a student question, a teacher would share with them how language works to make meaning. Pragmatic competence could be developed by exploring illocutionary meaning in texts such as accounts, reports, poetry and storytelling and by expressing ideas, manipulating information and recognising heuristic and imaginative functions of language in use. Sociolinguistic competence could be realised through students' sensitivity to register and cultural expression with opportunities for them to learn strategic competence in order to maintain a conversation. A teacher's role in life-long learning includes providing opportunities for students to establish strategies for maintaining their learning when the teacher is not present. Many features of effective third turn taking would be realised more obviously when teachers were trained in how to review transcriptions of their own lessons.

Pre-service teachers would have an opportunity to view lessons on video and follow with a transcribed version. Features of productive pedagogies and communicative language ability would be identified for observation and discussion.

Awareness of Membership Categorisation

Effective teachers tend to have an implicit awareness of membership behaviour within categories of social interaction. They can manage role changes and are versatile in adjusting to category-bound identities such as changes required to incorporate student-initiated moves. Communication flows well while exchanges are harmonious and members can conform to expectations and participants identify with a given category. However, situations can become problematic, for example in role plays, when students are categorised in a way they consider unfair, and when students categorise a teacher by membership traits that s/he is not comfortable with, so adjustments need to be made.

Teacher and students tend to interact within membership roles they have been assigned or they have negotiated in their talk. The idea of membership (Schegloff, 1972) in a category operates simply in classrooms where teacher and students hear rules of membership the same way as each other. It can become problematic if students seek familiarity outside the bounds to which others conform, or if a teacher is inconsistent within his/her role, and membership categories become confused. When a listener hears a membership category as the speaker intended, his/her response will be meaningful as a member. However, if a listener has not heard a sequence as the speaker intended, for example when a speaker moves contexts to adopt a character in a role play and another student listener has not identified membership role, there is potential for communication breakdown.

Identifying membership in text is not simply a feature recoverable from what is said, but it is also a major determiner of what one says. Communicative approaches to language teaching can become

problematic when role players refuse to acknowledge their change in status or they have not learned rules associated with Standardised Relational Pairs (SRPs). For example, when a student initiates a turn as a teacher might in a traditional IRE/F exchange, s/he has to be heard to engage consistently in the contextually-bound activity such that economy rule, consistency rule and duplicative organization are followed.

There is an expected order of talk by members of a category. By naming a person in that category, s/he conforms to behaviour associated with it. So a teacher becomes bound to the category of “listener” when s/he hears a student’s voice responding to a question in which meaning is communicated. A reflexive constitution for a student who usurped a third turn from a teacher would predicate the student category as “turn taker”.

Those descriptions would come to be used for categories of teacher and student who characteristically displayed behaviours associated with those categories. So a teacher who listens to interactive meaning in a student’s utterance is category-bound as a communicative language teacher. Students whose sense of alignment with a teacher sees asking a timely question, or providing feedback to another student, as appropriate for a turn-taker, is allocated the category of turn-taker. Inferences are made about a student’s identity as one who can find the transitionally relevant place in a stream of talk to take a turn such that turn-taking becomes normative behaviour for students. These become category-bound activities. Teachers with knowledge and confidence to allow for adjustment in roles are also likely to permit a wider range of options in feedback moves than is achieved with evaluative moves.

Teachers and students, as members of their respective categories, are in a position to acknowledge the extent of their rights and expectations of each other. There will be obligations, and associated knowledge about what it is possible to gain from a teacher’s extra turn of talk. A third turn then becomes significantly more interactive when, as speaker, a teacher is a secondary knower, or respondent to a student’s initiation of questions. Communication is also affected positively when a knower other than teacher has access to managing talk, and making genuine use of the third turn. Teacher and students are well aligned when they have similar expectations of an appropriate course of action within activities typical of CLT, such as role play, information gap exercises, problem solving, and joint collaboration on tasks. These tools are membership categorisation devices that teachers should use to be secondary knowers when it is appropriate in CLT.

When students come to understand what is happening at the third turn, they too can use it to advantage. It is more likely they will become astute listeners by realising potential available to them to take the turn and extend it to their advantage. A teacher therefore has to decide how significant it is to be an effective facilitator, when to be primary knower, timely negotiator, guide, supporter, or leader, and when to be secondary knower in potentially communicative situations. Associations that accompany third turn use by a teacher will include a list of characteristic feedback types. So in place

of an evaluative turn such as “yes right, next”, the predicate of a third turn category would come from a raft of possible replies according to the quality of response a student gives.

Kasper and Overstreet (2004) suggest there is a need to develop a research program of conversation analysis for second language acquisition in areas of talk that are not instructional but more conversational across different target languages and interactional practices. As both project and product of participants’ own actions, the context for learning through language used at the third turn is shaped by goals for the lesson, actions of the participants and by the outcomes. The third turn is inherently locally produced and can be transformed at any moment by the categories present. It is an integral part of how classroom talk is understood. Although not always recognised as immediately comprehensible to an outsider, any understanding can develop between teacher and students through third turn talk that they conjointly produce. It is so powerful a learning point in a lesson that students can be brought to synthesise fine details in the feedback part of that exchange. Even a student who gets an answer wrong provides potential for powerful pedagogy among his/her listeners. So quality of talk generated within moves of the third turn in IRE/F exchanges is key to co-construction of knowledge, and more valued than language output provided by a traditional evaluative move.

In conclusion, the research reported here has indicated within a particular setting the educational power of third turn in a classical three-turn conceptualisation of classroom talk, and the potential of productive pedagogy frameworks for interpreting that power. A teacher more aware of language use choices at the third turn might choose to “develop a changed stance that makes the deployment of the more empowering options his or her ‘preferred’ response at critical points in the unfolding discourse” (Wells, 1999, p. 264). As dialogic teaching brings to communities of practice the significance of teacher-student and student-student exchanges (Alexander, 2004, p. 28), there is application also for teacher educators and researchers. There is a call to “create communities of inquiry in which teachers and researchers collaborate in investigating ways of improving practice” (Wells, 1999, p. 265). While there are many more steps to be taken in bringing knowledge and understanding of such power and potential to a research-led confidence in wider application, the findings of this case suggest that the journey may be a worthy one for educators across the curriculum.

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